

Elementary English

A Magazine of the Language Arts

JANUARY, 1959

READING

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WRITING

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SPEAKING

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LISTENING

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SPELLING

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ENGLISH USAGE

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CHILDREN'S BOOKS

•

RADIO AND
TELEVISION

•

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

•

POETRY

•

CREATIVE
WRITING

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

KENNETH GRAHAME

CRITICAL READING

STUDIES IN LISTENING



Exploring the Planets

By Roy A. Gallant (Garden City)

*Organ of the National Council
of Teachers of English*

Elementary ENGLISH

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NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

704 SOUTH SIXTH STREET · · · · · CHAMPAIGN, ILLINOIS

By Way of Introduction . . .

In his acceptance speech at Pittsburgh, Joseph Mersand, new Council president, referred to his immediate predecessor, BRICE HARRIS, with a quotation from Samuel Johnson's "Epitaph on Goldsmith":

He touched nothing that he did not adorn.
No more fitting characterization could be made. Something of his graciousness as well as his fine grasp of the problems of our profession are revealed in Dr. Harris' Presidential Address, "Act Well Your Part."



The year 1959 marks the centenary of the birth of Kenneth Grahame, author of the much-loved, *The Wind in the Willows*. We are fortunate to have a perceptive account of his work by Mr. NEVILLE BRAYBROOKE. Mr. Braybrooke is a London free lance writer, among whose publications is a *History of the London Parks*, to be published this year, and a *History of Juvenilia* by past and living authors, on which he is now at work.



No topic is more popular among elementary school teachers these days than individualized reading. RUTH CROSSLEY and MILDRED KNILEY, and MAIDA WOOD SHARPE report concrete experiences with the method.



Too often our American educational periodicals neglect the work of our colleagues across the sea. Readers will be especially interested in the account of creative drama activities among British children, contributed by IRVIN BENNETT MILLER.



DOROTHEA COMER supplies many interesting illustrations of the uses of literature in helping young children to understand and meet their personal problems.

In many third grade classes, children are beginning to encounter the specialized vocabularies of the various subject fields. DR. ZOE A. THRALLS helps us to see some of the problems presented by the broadened curriculum for the teacher of reading.



We are generally agreed that remedial reading programs are important in the junior high school grades. Often this work is neglected because teachers are at a loss as to how to begin. FRANK WITT suggests both techniques and materials.



This oversize issue carries an unusual amount of material on research in the language arts. BURLEIGH H. SHIBLES reports another study on the size of children's vocabularies. DR. E. ELONA SOCHOR begins a timely series on critical reading. PAUL A. WITTY and ROBERT A. SIZEMORE contribute their second article on studies in listening. The third and final instalment will appear next month. Both the critical reading and the listening series will be available from the Council later as reprint pamphlets, the Sochor summary sponsored by the National Conference on Research in English.



Next month another series sponsored by the National Conference, dealing with children's writing and edited by Alvina Treut Burrows, will appear in *Elementary English*. This series also will be available from the Council in pamphlet form. Next month also we present an article by WILHELMINA HILL, of the U. S. Office of Education, containing ideas for the observance of the Lincoln Sesquicentennial.

BRICE HARRIS

Act Well Your Part

Nearly thirty years ago when I confided to the fabling and much fabled Professor George Lyman Kittredge that I had just received an appointment as instructor in English at another university and that I should soon be leaving graduate halls, he responded in characteristic fashion. He raised an index finger to eye-level and snorted, "Good! now watch your performance! watch your performance!" This injunction has stuck in my mind over the years. And so tonight as I stand before you at a time when the profession of English teaching may anticipate rough seas ahead, I revert to Professor Kittredge's sage counsel. I might have adopted "Watch your Performance" as my title. I have chosen rather a line from Alexander Pope which carries the same meaning but which impresses me as being even more hortatory, "Act well your part, there all the honor lies." I like this line because it definitely seems to borrow its metaphor from the stage, reminding one indeed that all the world's a stage and all English teachers merely players. I believe firmly that every

English teacher in America has a part to play in the sun in the perilous days ahead. And I believe further that, as in the cast of a good play where all actors must combine their talents harmoniously to secure

the proper effect, so all English teachers must pool their efforts in the common cause.

Long before the consternation precipitated by the Russian moons in the autumn of 1957 the major English associations in this country were concluding that all was not well with the profession. There was a general feeling that even though all was not rotten in Denmark yet all was not at ease in Zion. Each year the rising presidents of the National Council,

who had spent their year as vice-presidents studying the profession, were telling us that criticism was rife. The Modern Language Association of America, historically a defender of the purely scholarly approach, was suddenly impelled to turn its attention to the teaching of English in

Dr. Harris, President of NCTE in 1958, is Professor of English at Pennsylvania State University.



Brice Harris

America. The College English Association had appointed a committee on Professional Standards and Conditions which had made its first report before Sputnik. An examination of the professional aspect of these criticisms discloses that they come from two obvious sources: our own criticisms of our profession and the general public's criticism of us and our product. Before prescribing remedies, then, let us consider briefly what some of us think of ourselves and what a portion of the general public thinks of us.

What Some of Us Think of the Profession

Let me reassure you at once by saying that not all English teachers harbor complaints about their profession. Many, in fact, are bored with adverse criticism, deplore it, and want to get on with the work at hand. I must tell you that this body of completely satisfied teachers is a minority. Their colleagues believe otherwise. What do they say? They lack prestige in their own communities, they say. They are not paid so well as other professional people in the community, sometimes not so well as the science teachers in their own ranks. They are overworked and they have no time for professional growth and intellectual advancement. They work day and night performing duties that have little to do with actual teaching. They have become clerks—I saw a list recently of twenty-nine distinct tasks that one teacher had to perform outside the usual paperwork of themes, tests, and other daily written work. Instead of the eighty or ninety students whom they think they might teach well, they have in some cases one hundred and fifty. Teachers of composition are particularly frustrated by these

numbers. Their consciences prick because they do not have time to read all of their themes thoroughly and carefully or to schedule individual conferences for students who need help in writing. Sometimes they are not permitted to follow new texts and new approaches in teaching because such matters are governed by administrative officers or by the school board. They point out regretfully that the best young minds are simply not going into English teaching these days, that the intellectual potential and social level of incoming teachers are not so good as when they entered the profession. Worst of all, perhaps, some of them are beginning to doubt that English as a subject-matter field has any vital place in the curriculum of the future.

Mind you, I am not asserting that these statements are true—I am merely telling you some of the comments I have heard as I have visited with English teachers rather widely over the country and as I have listened to them talk about their profession. Let me quote and paraphrase from one letter which puts the case in the language of today. The writer was a former student of mine, an excellent one, who has been teaching English in a large city school system. Discreetly, I shall call the city Metropole. Although teachers everywhere are underpaid, she says, it becomes more obvious to a person living in Metropole, as he compares his way of life to that of his peers in the business world. There are advantages in Metropole which teachers would like to enjoy—plays, music, membership in art museums, private school for the kids—and there are special problems about the city that they want to avoid. "All these things are very

costly, but their peers in advertising or public relations can afford them easily. So these teachers are all knocking themselves out taking extra classes in evening sessions, teaching in one school in the day, another at night, having no time for wife and family. Pretty soon they begin to wonder what the ratrace is all about, what they are doing with their lives. I guess that is why there are so many cynics and 'operators' in the teaching profession around here." If any large number of our teachers are meeting conditions like this, is it any wonder they are depressed, disillusioned, and despondent, awaiting only the right opportunity to leave the profession?

Later in these remarks I am going to suggest stern measures for curing these ills, but I cannot resist saying here and now that if you are acting your part well, you know already the answers to some of these criticisms of our profession. You know that if we are dedicated teachers with a common purpose and a real and universal goal ahead of us we shall have no time for smallness and carping and puny jealousies. You know that we must emphasize the strong points of the profession, stress its satisfactions, and cherish its opportunities. You know that complaining and professional splintering can divide and ultimately destroy us. You know that sniping chit-chat, leering and sarcastic gossip in faculty lounges, and political caucusing in school halls will do literally nothing to advance the profession. But here I am exhorting, and the time for exhortation may be long past.

What Some of the Public Thinks of Us

For our purposes I shall define the

general public as that part of the world which does not teach English: students and parents, superintendents and principals, PTA's and school boards, and the rest of mankind and womankind who pay taxes and expect something for their money, whether or not they express their opinions of us. Not a sound definition for all purposes, I acknowledge, but useful for this paper. Now what do these people think of us and our product? What does English mean to them? An alarming number of these wards that we teach in elementary, secondary, and college classes, they say, are unable to read, write, spell, use correct grammar, punctuate, or interpret the simplest prose passage. These same wards don't know even the most obvious facts about literature, are not in fact remotely interested in literature. They can not express themselves in public. Wouldn't it be a good idea if we could go back to the good old days when, presumably, their student colleagues could do all these disciplines well? Current methods of teaching, class discussion, and the attempt to give a student purpose in a course, are all wrong. Colleges and professional schools complain of inadequate preparation; graduate schools blame the colleges. We are inclined to give no more than we are paid for and are even willing in certain instances to accept labor union ideals, meaning I suppose that we don't keep pupils after school and donate private tutoring to them. There is no need to enlarge this catalogue of complaints, but I do want to conclude with one of the most amusing attacks on us that I have ever heard: since college English teachers don't have laboratory and practicum classes like engineering, music, physical education,

science, and art teachers, they therefore have a great deal of time on their hands which they use in gardening and mowing the lawn. I leave this one for you to ruminate on quietly and prayerfully before you begin reading your next batch of themes.

If you are acting your part well, you are able to answer many of these complaints, and I have no doubt that you do. You can certainly acknowledge that some of the complaints are true, but that every earnest and zealous English teacher is doing everything in his power to help correct them and that for many of these conditions the public is more to blame than you. My private opinion is that we have allowed ourselves to be beaten down by the very weight of these condemnations, that we quaver and wince and stumble too frequently when we try to answer them. As I want to show later, a large number of these gripes must be thrown back directly in the lap of the public.

The truth of the matter is that the public's idea of our function as English teachers is confused, hazy, uninformed, and oftentimes mediaeval and maudlin. Take, for example, the current stereotype of the English teacher as he appears in literature and in the press. We are treated at every level of teaching as if we were fit products for the local zoo. A well-known Eastern college for women appoints a distinguished educator as its new president, in this case a historian, but the application is the same. The press makes a huge lovable bear of him, detailing the filthiness of his tweed coat, the shagginess of his hair, the deplorable mess that is his study, and the moose-like amble of his walk. And the American public gobble this up, I assume, grunting its satisfaction and murmuring,

"Just what I'd expect him to be!" Only librarians and ministers get worse treatment.

Professor Arthur Foff of San Francisco State College has presented this stereotype very satisfactorily, though in my opinion too briefly, in our own *English Journal*, March 1958, with his article "Scholars and Scapegoats." To this gem I should like to add R. L. Mégroz's *Pedagogues are Human* (London, 1950), an anthology of teachers, grave and gay, from British and American fiction, poetry, biography, letters, and diaries. Mr. Mégroz chooses his portraits of schoolmasters chiefly from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; Professor Foff, from sixty-two American novels published mainly between 1920 and 1951. The implications for the profession are strikingly similar.

Let me read you some selections from an account of Mr. Churchill, a village schoolmaster of the year 1849, taken from Henry W. Longfellow's little-read novel, *Kavanagh*:

Great men stand like solitary towers in the city of God, and secret passages running deep beneath external nature give their thoughts intercourse with higher intelligences. . . . Some such thought as this was floating vaguely through the brain of Mr. Churchill, as he closed his school-house door behind him; and if in any degree he applied it to himself, it may perhaps be pardoned in a dreamy, poetic man like him. . . . And, moreover, his wife considered him equal to great things. To the people in the village he was the schoolmaster, and nothing more. They beheld in his form and countenance no outward sign of the divinity within. They saw him daily moiling and delving in the common path, like a beetle, and little thought that underneath that hard and cold exterior lay folded delicate wings. . . .

Nature had made Mr. Churchill a poet, but destiny made him a schoolmaster. This

produced a discord between his outward and his inward existence. . . . He was forced to teach grammar when he would fain have written poems; and from day to day, and from year to year, the trivial things of life postponed the great designs which he felt capable of accomplishing, but never had the resolute courage to begin. Thus he dallied with his thoughts and with all things, and wasted his strength on trifles. . . .

Now with all respect to teacher Churchill, I submit nevertheless that this is a pretty accurate stereotype early in American fiction of what the public thought and continues to think about a member of our profession. Only "his wife considered him equal to great things." I intentionally shield you here from the motley crew of odd ducks, "rag-ends of unsalable males and unmarrageable females," that Professor Foff unearths in the twentieth century, culminating in Mr. Peepers and Miss Brooks.

Laugh at me if you wish, but I feel that we could do something to shatter this stereotype. We might have trouble contacting the creative writers who fit us into preconceived molds in novels and plays, but with several hundred thousand English teachers and four major national associations we could bring considerable pressure to bear on a press which if not exactly snide is certainly misinformed and old-fashioned in its ideas of us. Letters to the editor increasingly shape editorial policy and news slant in this country. And since at one time or another we have taught or are teaching or will teach all the native writers in America we could suggest to them and prove it by example in our classes that we don't relish being called lovable old bears, fuddy-duddies, and ineffectual quacks.

Finally and more seriously, I keep wondering what the public, especially parents, wants and expects of us in our English classes. Let me say, for example, that we are teaching writing—you may select your own level: elementary, secondary, or college. An unfortunately large number of both teachers and parents seem to think that a pupil has been successful if he has learned to avoid certain *do's* and *don'ts* that are listed in the teacher's head or in the back of a handbook: Do be sure that you have a topic sentence; that at every transition of thought you use *however*, *moreover*, and *accordingly* (not realizing that these jokers have been almost entirely absent from good modern style for nearly a generation); that you throw in a semicolon every other sentence or so; that you enclose in quotes every word that for some vague unreason your teacher or your mamma might question. Keep your eyes peeled for *due to* and *the reason was because* and *different than*, poor old convict phrases that must be red-pencilled and hurried back to the penitentiary every time they escape. We pay too little attention to clear writing, logical thinking, honesty and ease of expression, natural charm and symmetry and personality and pace. I make no pleas for the legalization or annihilation of any of the handbook *do's* and *don'ts* I have quoted above. I simply say that a scrupulous attention to them alone will never make good writers of our students. And I know from personal experience that a perilously large number of markers of college freshman themes are engaged in just this kind of grading. Is this what parents expect us to do for their children's writing? Is this what English teachers as a whole think they should be

mendations make mine look pale.

I have no intention of illustrating at this time how we might present all of our woes to the public, but I request your tolerance for just one more woe, that lack of respect which the general public has for our standing as members of a professional group in the community. As leaders in an important profession we must somehow convince an aroused public that we should receive the pay and the respect that professional leaders have a right to demand. We have the same basic expenses that they have and we deserve the same cultural and recreational values. Not many of us are trying to keep up with the Joneses, but these days we can't even begin to keep up with Mac, Dick, and Harry who make their livings driving tractor trailers, cleaning and mending teeth, and massaging wrecked and abused bodies. Social standing in a community must be earned and not bought, I assume, but a proper amount of money goes a long way toward helping one gain it. If you are acting your part well, you will be informing the public passionately and constantly about this weak link in your professional chain.

If we are to realize our ambitions, we are in for a fight, you may be sure, and I want to urge one word of caution as battle lines are drawn. This must be an honorable fight. Our implements of war are the press, the public and private meeting, the pressures that we can bring to bear by numbers and a united front. As one teacher within the sound of my voice has written, "The problem is to find some organ—some fighting heart—some organization whereby we professors can make these . . . values, if not loved and treasured, at least felt and respected by society."¹

Articulation of our Professional Endeavors

Other organizations with similar interests may sometimes disagree and cross each other's established lines, but I know of none that disagree so successfully and completely as do teachers of English. At a time when we should be combining our total strength for the struggle ahead of us we are divided, we do not speak with one voice, we make small attempt to correlate our ideas and our problems. Whatever we may think of other kinds of segregation, we engage in the most ridiculous professional segregation. Several hundred thousand strong, boasting four national organizations strictly concerned with English and the teaching of English, we have had until recently very little common purpose. The scholar-teacher who writes articles on Chaucer and Milton, Whitman and Eliot, can find no common meeting ground with the scholar-teacher who writes articles on the teaching of modern linguistics, the preparation of a teacher of the language arts, or methods of teaching developmental reading. Would a chemist whose specialty was ammonia gas, or a physicist who knew all there was to know about crystallography deny the title of scientist to a fellow worker who taught young chemists and physicists how to teach their subject? But we English teachers who find ourselves in different categories of the same subject seem to enjoy being exclusive.

I heard recently a startling story about the meeting of a state association of English teachers from all levels: elementary,

¹Richard B. Hovey, "Freshman Illiteracy and Professorial Jeopardy," *Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors*, XLIV, No. 2, Summer, 1958.

doing? Here perhaps is one area where teachers and parents might agree, where we might institute the common cause that would give direction and understanding and purpose to our endeavors in composition.

Speaking of a common cause, I am reminded that I must go ahead to my two final points which are 1) that English teachers and the public are going to have to understand each other a great deal better in the years ahead, and 2) that English teachers are going to have to work together more harmoniously. We must make the direct appeal to the public; we must articulate our own professional endeavors.

The Direct Appeal to the Public

By this time, of course, it is trite to say that the increased interest of the American public in education followed the realization that Russia was well ahead of us in certain scientific and technical areas. Nor am I concerned so much with why the public has been awakened as with the obvious fact that some of it has been keenly awakened and that now is the time for us to place our plight before it, to give it the information that it needs. We shall expect to do this through every method at our command: through the legions of local newspapers all over the country, through our own well-written articles in national magazines, through PTA's and town meetings, through a concerted attempt to answer every complaint about the profession that comes our way both publicly and privately, and through every opportunity that either falls in our laps or that we can hatch up where we may speak for ourselves. I suppose we shall continue to pass

resolutions and that the public will continue to give lip service to our pleas. But that kind of pressure is not enough. We have a huge selling job ahead of us, and I firmly believe that the public is ready to buy.

Do you face one hundred and fifty students a day in five class periods and guard and clerical duties between, and does your conscience hurt you because you aren't reading student themes thoroughly or discussing the worst ones in private conference with the writers? Take it up with every individual and every group concerned. If parents complain, tell them why you can not do a better job for their offspring, and say the same thing in public meetings. Following a well-attended public meeting in my small town, English teachers were told recently that they would have only four classes and fewer pupils so that they could give more attention to writing. It can happen and indeed is happening in other towns and cities all over the country. Certainly, too, you have every right to ask that each English teacher be restricted to two writing courses with about twenty to twenty-five students each and that the remainder of your program be given over to literature or to speech or to another subject in which you are capable. Lest you think that I am proposing something radical and new, let me tell you that the National Council of Teachers of English from its inception has been advocating just what I have proposed. The first issue of *The English Journal*, Volume 1, Number 1, Page 1, carries an article by Professor E. M. Hopkins, entitled "Can Good Composition Teaching be Done under Present Conditions?" This was 1912, and Professor Hopkins's recom-

Kenneth Grahame - 1859-1932

A Centenary Study

Kenneth Grahame was not a prolific writer. Two volumes of miscellaneous pieces including short stories and essays, three books for children, a few prefatory notes to other men's work—such was his range and limit. Yet, small as this output was, in all his writing there is apparent a most meticulous and musical care in his choice of every word. An eaves-dropper, who had once listened to him telling his son a story, said afterwards to Mrs. Grahame: "It sounded like music, and every word slid just into its rightful place. There was magic in it." The judgment is impossible to better; it can only be enlarged upon. For music, magic, and beauty—those are the three qualities which distinguish him from so many of the other Yellow Book contributors, who, so often rich in one or other of these qualities, lacked the other two.

Grahame's life was a comparatively uneventful one. Born in Edinburgh in 1859, he entered the Bank of England when he was twenty. During the Eighties he wrote a number of essays, falling to some extent under the sway of W. E. Henley, who was responsible for sponsoring his work in the *National Observer*. This resulted in 1893 in his publishing a collection of essays under the title of *Pagan Papers*. In this collection there also appeared some sections which two years later he incorporated in his first book *about* and *for* children and it was this book, *The Golden Age*, which drew forth Swinburne's comment: "well-nigh too praiseworthy for praise." Then

in 1898—the year in which he was appointed Secretary to the Bank of England—he brought out a sequel. Inevitably, as in the case of sequels, the public were disappointed with *Dream Days*. Edward of *The Golden Age* had gone to school, and time alone has restored it to its rightful place as a children's classic, as time alone a decade later was to do the same thing for *The Wind in the Willows*. For although Grahame had written another book *for* children, it was not *about* them: in publication date it might be nearest to *The Golden Age* and *Dream Days*, but in theme it is closer to his long short story of 1890, *The Headswoman*, where fantasy and reality intermingle. In *The Headswoman* there is to be found the essence of a fairy story, and I use the term fairy story in the sense that Chesterton once used it when declaring that fairy stories were the only true stories. Likewise, the plot of *The Headswoman* is so improbable that it seems almost probable.

The story opens: "It was a bland sunny morning of mediaeval May—an old-style May of the most typical quality; and the Council of the little town of St. Radegonde were assembled, as was their wont at that hour, in the picturesque upper chamber of the Hotel de Ville, for the despatch of the usual municipal business." That is a fairy-tale beginning with a certain air of ordinariness imposed upon it; the suggestion that it is past history lends it the necessary note of credibility and real-

Mr. Braybrooke lives at 10, Gardnor Road, London, N. W. 3, England.

secondary, and college. The two-day affair covered a more than modest range of subject-matter and methods programs, a dinner open to all comers, and a Saturday luncheon with a distinguished, nationally known speaker. From the large university English department in the same town I was told that two members attended all the meetings, two more attended a reception the first evening, and a total of five turned up for the luncheon with the distinguished speaker. From the somewhat smaller department of English-Education I was told that two members were present. But six hundred teachers of English from all over the state had found it possible to drive to the campus for the meeting, some of them over two hundred miles. The mountain of unconcern has not yet been scaled, but if this profession of English teaching ever expects to reach its potential, it had better start the climb.

Now, in conclusion, we can make no real appeal to the public when we are so divided and in some cases so unconcerned about our profession. Certainly, we must know each other better, and by knowing

each other better we may expect in time to come to some kind of agreement on mutual interests and problems. We shall have to talk together and work together if we expect to reach the heights that we deserve and expect to command. We shall have to campaign, and exert pressure, and lobby together. We want no strikes and no goons in Academe. In our profession academic hoods are used for much more dignified purposes. But if we can find it in our hearts and minds and wills to march together in this common cause, I can see no limits to our destiny.

It behooves us, then, to watch our performance, to act our parts well. We English teachers belong to an honorable and an extremely necessary profession, boasting a glorious past and anticipating a permanent and an increasingly significant future. Let us get in step. Let us hold our heads high as we face a common objective. Let us be proud. I say to you, English teachers, as the Air Force officers said to the first cadets who marched onto the new campus at Colorado Springs, "Heads up! Keep the step! Look proud! Look proud!"

The Junior Literary Guild

Here are the titles of the January 1959 Junior Literary Guild selections:

For boys and girls 5 and 6 years old

HOW DO I GO? by Mary Ann and Norman Hoberman
Little, Brown, \$2.50

For boys and girls 7 and 8 years old

THE MAGIC MEADOW by Ingri and Edgar Parin d'Aulaire
Doubleday, \$3.00

For boys and girls 9, 10, and 11 years old

PUTT-PUTT SKIPPER by Hildreth T. Wriston
Farrar, Straus & Cudahy, \$3.00

For girls 12 to 16 years old

HEARTBREAK STREET by Dorothy Gilman Butters
Macrae Smith, \$2.75

For boys 12 to 16 years old

JUNIOR MILER by Lawrence A. Keating
Westminster Press, \$2.95

Water-rat came into being; St. Radegonde of the Middle Ages led to the English river-ways of the Thames.

Alistair, Grahame's son, was nicknamed the Mouse: he was a great lover of stories and each night his father would tell him one. Then, like Edward, he had to go to school and his father promised that, though away from home, he should not want for hearing of the Toad's adventures; he would write and tell him about them—and thus the story of *The Wind in the Willows* was created. For Alistair proved the perfect recipient for these letters as he had proved the perfect listener: he had no doubts about Toad's existence, just as Chesterton had none about fairy stories being the only true stories. Indeed, when the Mouse had been driving through Windsor Park at the age of four, and one of the party had complained about the deer nibbling away at the branches and injuring the trees, he had popped up and suggested that "you could put up a printed Notice asking them not to nibble away."

That, too, was very much his father's attitude. He believed that people had lost their sense of wonder; that nobody any longer expected to meet Sir Launcelot in shining armour on a moonlit road, or an angel unawares behind a thicket. Such things belonged to the realms of poetry, not sense; they were fantasies, not realities. Walt Whitman had proclaimed: "To me every hour of the day and night is an unspeakably perfect miracle," and Grahame's every hour of the day and night was such. He saw no reason why a man's life from sixty to seventy should be more important than his years from five to fifteen.

In my tales about children, I have tried to show that their simple acceptance of the

mood of wonderment, their readiness to welcome a perfect miracle at any hour of the day and night, is a thing more precious than any of the laboured acquisitions of adult mankind. . . .

And from this automatically follows his apologia for writing about animals:

As for animals, I wrote about the most familiar and domestic in *The Wind in the Willows* because I felt a duty to them as a friend. Every animal, by instinct, lives according to his nature. Thereby he lives wisely, and betters the tradition of mankind. No animal is ever tempted to belie his nature. No animal, in other words, knows how to tell a lie. Every animal is honest. Every animal is straightforward. Every animal is true—and is, therefore, according to his nature, both beautiful and good. I like most of my friends among animals more than I like most of my friends among mankind. Do you wonder at that? . . .

The two statements are complementary: wonderment is the key to both, for in wonderment Grahame saw truth. In the animal world that truth was natural; in the children's world it was miraculous, or supernatural.

The Wind in the Willows was more than "a series of imaginative nature sketches," which is how George Sampson described it in the *Concise Cambridge History of English Literature*: it was a plea with W. H. Davies "to stand and stare"; to see

when woods we pass
Where squirrels hide their nuts in grass.

Certainly it was a poor life if there were

No time to turn at Beauty's glance
And watch her feet, how they can dance.

Yet Grahame never forsook reality, or buried himself away. On the contrary, all during this time he was working at the Bank of England—and there is a lot to be

ism, since the tale itself relates how, on the death of her father, a young girl of eighteen has to take over his post as town executioner. To the amazement of both the Mayor and his Council, she does so—readily and gladly. Then one night she meets an unknown "fair" youth (both the hero and the heroine are "fair"—it goes aptly enough with "mediaeval May") and she tells him that in the morning he may see her "ply her trade" in the market-place. Lo and behold, when dawn breaks, he is led out for execution: by some error as it turns out—perhaps because it is another "bland sunny morning" when even rogues should not be executed—it is discovered that the guard have mistaken this "fair" youth for the real criminal. At the last moment, amends are made on the scaffold; in the nick of time, everything is explained by the Mayor. So this Seigneur, this "fair youth," proposes to Jeanne, the "fair Chatelaine" of St. Radegonde—and all live happily ever after. Thus what is fantastic has its realistic side, and what is realistic is fantastic. Grahame is able to maintain the paradox since what he is concerned with presenting is that point of truth where everything which seems clearly incredible is also incredibly clear: it is what made his subsequent books so popular with children. He does not appeal to their imagination because he is at one with their imaginations: he is meeting them on their own level so that what he asks of his listeners—and his books cry out to be read *aloud*—is not the suspension of doubt, but faith; and on this level his work is best summed up in Browning's line as "Infantile Art divinely artless." Only scrutiny on another level reveals his meticulous and musical artistry.

Like *The Headswoman*, *The Wind in the Willows* is a story-teller's achievement. Yet before saying anything of it directly perhaps I may hark back to the other two books. I have already said that the public greeted *Dream Days* with none of the enthusiasm which they had given to its predecessor, *The Golden Age*, and one of the reasons for this (apart from the fact that in nine cases out of ten sequels fail) may have been because Edward had gone to school. The children that he had played with as a boy were growing up and, as boys grow up, so there tends to be a declension in the heroic. Before the age of reason, at six, a boy will take on a genie, an Afreet or two, a few Sultans and two armies "with a calmness resembling indifference"; at twelve he is satisfied if three hundred Redskins, mounted on mustangs and yelling like devils, pursue him across the prairie (shades of the "tuppenny blood" days). Fifteen; the odds shorten: it is enough now if the boy lay his frigate alongside two French ships of the line and fight one duel—but with the Admiral of course; then at twenty-five it suffices that he win fame and fortune and that, in the face of a competitive House of Lords, he marry an Earl's daughter (in *The Headswoman*, remember, the hero was a Seigneur). Now Grahame was aware of this declension because he had noted it in an essay which he had contributed to a number of *The Yellow Book*: he had, too, a growing son and, coupling these factors together, I would submit that they played no small part in his turning his attention to the animal kingdom. There, for adults as for children, dream days remain dream days; the golden age is endless. So it was that the world of Toad, Badger, Mole, and

breathe the defeat of the weasels and stoats it is not surprising to find that Toad "dipped his hairbrush in the water-jug, parted his hair in the middle, and plastered it down very straight and sleek on each side of his face": the action is in keeping with the character.

Doubtless it is touches such as these which eventually won such popularity for the book after a slow start. They are a recurring factor of which suffice it here to quote two last representative examples. They both concern Ratty.

And when the ducks stood on their heads suddenly, as ducks will, he would dive down and tickle their necks, just under where their chins would be if ducks had chins, till they were forced to come to the surface again in a hurry, spluttering and angry and shaking their feathers at him, for it is impossible to say quite *all* when your head is under water.

"What's up, Ratty?" asked the Mole.
"Snow, is up," replied the Rat briefly; "or rather, *down*. It's snowing hard."

A subscription to *Junior Libraries*, published by the R. R. Bowker Co., 62 West 45th Street, New York 36, N. Y., is almost a *must* for the English teacher who wants to keep up with the current books as they come from the publishers' presses. For a \$3.50 subscription (September through May) the magazine keeps one informed, not only of the current books for children and young people, but also of the newest methods in library work.

Awards mentioned in *Junior Libraries* included the William Allen White Children's Book Award for 1958 to Elliott Arnold's *White Falcon*. Judges for the award were Kansas school children in grades 4 through 9, who read from a selected list of books and voted to determine the winner. They cast a record total of 33,000 votes in choosing *White Falcon*, which is the author's first book slanted to young adults. Beverly Cleary's book *Fifteen* won the 1958 Dorothy Canfield Fisher Children's Book

In each passage there is a noticeable choice of the appropriate phrase; in each of them there is a delicate sense of rhythm—qualities which Grahame believed his contemporary, Austin Dobson, to possess to the full. Nor was the admiration one-sided. For some recognized Grahame's own cadenced prose and hailed it: but they were few. Most people came simply to be fascinated by the subject matter, and because the artistry was so exquisite they mistook it for being "divinely artless." That was their compliment—a children's compliment which time has endorsed. Yet for those who knew the author he had another story to tell, another last word to add. "A large amount of what Thoreau called life went into the making of those playful pages. For," as he continued,

"to toil at making sentences means to sit indoors for many hours, cramped above a desk. Yet, out of doors, the wind may be singing through the willows, and my favourite sow may be preparing to deliver a large litter in the fullness of the moon."

Award. Vermont school children in grades 4 through 8 chose it as their favorite from among books published in 1956. W. Mayne received the British Carnegie Medal for the outstanding British children's book of 1957 for his *A Grass Rope*, and the Kate Greenaway Medal for outstanding illustration went to V. H. Drummond for her illustration of *Mrs. Easter and the Storks*.

An interesting award was that given by the Brooklyn Community-Woodward School in New York City. It is a gift of \$100 to UNICEF in the name of the author whose book "best interprets for children the concept of 'One World,' consistent with the ideals of the United Nations." This year the winner was Meindert DeJong for *The House of 60 Fathers*. Honorable mention went to Cynthia Bowles for *At Home in India* and to Margaret O. Hyde for *Exploring Earth and Space*.

said for the travelling which a regular job entails; the discipline keeps you in contact with people and the preciosity that so often attends people who retire to garrets, not through necessity but through choice, is missing. For the latter look down on the world and become eye-minded. (It is what accounts for the prevalent cult of the image in modern poetry). "But I am not a professional writer," Grahame would emphasize. "I never have been, and I never will be, by reason of the accident that I don't need any money." Nor did he care for notoriety. "If I should ever become a popular author, my privacy would be disrupted and I should no longer be allowed to live alone." So the question arose

What, then, is the use of writing for a person like myself? The answer might seem cryptic to most. It is merely that a fellow entertains a sort of hope that somehow, sometime, he may build a noble sentence that might make Sir Thomas Browne sit upward once again in that inhospitable grave of his in Norwich.

Men had belied their natures; they had suffered the domestication of the miracle of life. In children the sense of the miraculous remained, and through them it *might* be restored. The waterways that led to Toad's Hall were also symbolic: they were the springs of life.

Those of the river and its whereabouts would not tolerate bureaucracy. As Toad reflects after one of his escapades: "It was hard . . . to be within sight of safety and almost of home, and to be baulked by the pettifogging mistrustfulness of paid officials." Again, another lap nearer home, he finds he is being pursued, and the engine-driver in terms closely similar to those which Toad would use, catalogues

the pursuers. There are

men like ancient warders, waving halberds; policemen in their helmets, waving truncheons; and shabbily dressed men in pot-hats, obvious and unmistakable plain clothes detectives . . . waving revolvers and walking sticks.

The Nineties was a period of transition, and it was against this transition that *The Wind in the Willows* was composed. If it was the age of Dowson and Arthur Machen, it was as well the age of H. G. Wells and the young Shaw. It is with certain irony that at the end of the sixth chapter one learns that Toad "was a helpless prisoner in the remotest dungeon of the best guarded keep of the stoutest castle in all the length and breadth of Merry England." The England of which Grahame was writing was a changing England and, in so localizing the scene and playing tricks with time-sequences, he was able, steering between reality and fantasy, to play the satirist—though this was not his primary role. It was incidental to his main intention which was to restore sound to prose; to make words something more than sentences glimpsed "on the run" by men travelling up and down to the City. This meant capturing the music, magic, and beauty of the world; of transposing the taken for granted with the literal; of letting the miraculous re-appear where custom has dulled wonderment. The stress is on *being*. "I'm going to make an *animal* of you, my boy," says Toad to Ratty in just the same way as a father will say to his son "this—or that—is going to make a *man* of you." "Every animal, by instinct, lives according to his nature": the characteristics of Grahame's different animals are built up on this principle, so that before the grand Banquet begins which is to cele-

others?" Other incidental learnings were: all rights reserved, copyright, number of printings, date of publication. The terms hero and heroine became customary in their reports and conversation.

There was a first-aid kit for books in need of repair in the book hospital on one shelf.

The teacher pasted gummed binding material on the back of each book so that every child would know by the color key taped to one bookcase that red tape meant literature, blue was basic, green was science, black was social studies. Each label was clearly numbered 2.2, 3.1, 3.2, 4.1, 4.2 indicating 2B, 3A, 3B, 4A, 4B level.

The teacher's record book was a double page spread for each child's record of progress:

| Date | Title | Level | Page | Oral Rdg. | Comprehension |
|--------------------|-------|-----------------|------|--------------|---------------|
| Special Difficulty | | Special Ability | | Written Work | Sharing |

The teacher prepared the following mimeographed page which each child pasted in the front of his own record book. In the second term, point four was changed to dittoed questions as a better test of their comprehension. Many of the questions were inferential. Point six was homework preparation for Friday sharing. Parents said that they never saw such eagerness to do homework.

Assignment for Each Story

1. Write the name of the story.
2. Write the names of the characters in the story.
3. Write my opinion of the story.
 - a. Why I like it or do not like it.
 - b. The part I like best.
 - c. Why the title is good.
4. Choose one of these to write.
 - a. Five questions and answers.
 - b. The plot of the story.
 - c. What I learned from the story.

5. Write the new vocabulary in the back of my book.
6. Prepare to share my work. Use my own words.
 - a. Dramatization
 - b. Puppet show
 - c. Painting
 - d. Drawing
 - e. Collection
 - f. Exhibit
 - g. Dressed dolls
 - h. Diorama
 - i. Movie
7. Check up.
Did I remember?
 - a. To write in good sentences?
 - b. To use correct punctuation marks?
 - c. To use capital letters in titles and at beginning of sentences?
 - d. To spell carefully?
 - e. To have good handwriting?
 - f. To skip lines between topics?

Self-selection is a principle of individualized reading. Perhaps the year counts

as nothing scientifically because we had each child read his basic reader first, but at his own speed. This was a time of monotony for the teacher as far as subject matter was concerned, but not as far as working with each child wherever he was in his reader.

The room was a constant invitation to read, read, read. One bulletin board held a parade of clever posters over the year on the joy of reading. Book holders contrived from coat hangers held books open to attractive illustrations or supported closed books to display the title and cover. The tops of bookcases and windowsills became a tour of books on one subject at a time—horses, cats, dogs, farm life, prehistoric animals, wild animals, the circus, Pennsylvania Dutch, great Americans, Indians, airplanes. The children's exhibits were every-

RUTH CROSSLEY
AND
MILDRED KNILEY

An Individualized Reading Program

Opening scene for our Individualized Reading Program at Franklin School, Time June 1

M. K. "Mrs. Crossley, in our school organization for the next term, it appears that you will lose your large double class and keep twenty-one pupils for grade 3B." (The teacher's eyes light up at this pleasant prospect).

M. K. continues

"But Mrs. Crossley for five years (actually, from my own childhood days in elementary school) I've been banting to try something. May I come to you in a few days with a proposal of something I surely would like to see you try with this small class which you know so well?" (The light in the teacher's eyes dims)

June 2

Mrs. Crossley "One night of curiosity is as much as I can stand. What's on your mind?"

M. K. (takes deep breath) "An Individualized Reading Program."

R. C. (also takes deep breath) "But I don't know anything about an Individualized Reading Program."

M. K. (hands Mrs. C. a package of 5 x 8 typed cards)

"If you will read these notes which I have jotted down from magazine articles and books on the subject, you'll know as much as I do about Individualized Reading.

June 3

Mrs. C. (eyes shining)
"I read the notes.
I'm interested.
I'd like to try."

Immediately Mrs. Crossley changed her summer workshop course to Reading. She swung into action to accumulate an extensive classroom library by the beg-borrow method. Over the summer we shared the burden of reading hundreds of children's books. We took home shopping bags full of books for grades three and four. Naturally, we dipped lower and higher. We made a 3 x 5 card for every book with title, author, publisher, date, illustrator. For each book we had at least five questions, one of them inferential. The page number beside each question was a help for the teacher in finding the answer quickly. Each card ended with vocabulary and interesting expressions.

The child was expected to notice everything about the book. If the book had a dust jacket, the child was expected to read it and to learn something about the author's life. The 3 x 5 cards reminded the teacher to do something special with certain books such as "Have child read last two pages aloud for a punch line" or "How many names can you read on the inside covers?" or "What did you notice about the dedication?" or "What did you notice about the author and illustrator" or "What is meant by 'translation by,'" or "Has the author written other books? How do you know? Have you read any of the

Mrs. Crossley is a teacher and Mrs. Kniley is the principal at Franklin Elementary School, Rising Sun & Cheltenham Avenues, Philadelphia 20, Pa.

where.

A mystery book with 3 x 5 cards extending through an opening were always available for the child who wished to work on "games" in language arts—games such as finding many words in one word, building a family of words, using a suffix, stem, or prefix for making a list of words. The mystery box had spasms of popularity.

In summer workshop, the teacher made an inventory test notebook which she found invaluable in determining the frustration level of several children—a help in guiding these children to an easier book or to one of greater difficulty.

The class had been given a city test in reading in the Spring while in grade 3A. Another city test in reading would be given the following Spring in grade 4A. The class was tested with a nationally standardized achievement test in reading in September in 3B and again with another form of the test in June in 4A.

After the children were at work for a few weeks, their parents were invited to a meeting to learn about the term's plan in reading. Nineteen parents of the twenty-one attended; some took time from work to hear about the "new reading" over which their children were so excited.

We explained such items as the teacher's record of each child's progress, the pupil's own record, how the entire Language Arts program was involved, how a trip to the Academy of Natural Science the day before motivated the reading for so many of the stories for that age group are about animals. We talked about the grading of the workbooks checked every few days, completely checked every report period, and the use of the child's

own notebook and complete checking of it. The reading pattern of the week was explained: reading hour daily with individual conference while the class read or worked in notebooks or workbooks. Except for the low voice of the teacher and the pupil at the conference table, there was silence in the class room and no activity except reading.

Pupils came to the teacher for their conference in alphabetical order and were alert to lose no precious time from their conference.

Approximately a fifteen minute lesson followed each reading hour when the class had word study, vocabulary building, discussion of difficulties of a general nature which the teacher observed from conferences.

Two favorite times in the week were the hour spent in the school library on Thursday afternoons and the sharing time on Friday afternoons. In the latter, the children gave their book reviews on favorite stories. At home they made dioramas, paintings, drawings, puppets, paper figures on sticks, movies on a roll of wrapping paper and two broomsticks. They made stages and they dressed dolls. They chose their actors and rehearsed their plays at home. Every child was required to contribute. Except for two children, the problem was how to give them as many turns as they wished. There was always a scramble for certain books following the reports. A waiting list developed for some books.

On the following page is the class record on a National Achievement Test administered in Y form at the beginning of the year and in Z form at the end of the year.

CLASS RECORD FOR A NATIONAL
ACHIEVEMENT TEST, FORMS Y AND Z

| Test Y 9/30/57 3B | Expect- ancy—3.5 | Test Z 6/12/58 4A | Expect- ancy—4.5 |
|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| Name | Achieve- ment | Achieve- ment | Year's Gain |
| A | 3.9 | 5.4 | 1.5 |
| B | 2.85 | 3.85 | 1 |
| C | 3.6 | 6.5 | 3 |
| D | 3.35 | 5.9 | 2.6 |
| E | 3.5 | 5.3 | 1.8 |
| F | 5.2 | 7.35 | 2.1 |
| G | 3.4 | 5.75 | 2.3 |
| H | 3.3 | 4.25 | 1 |
| I | 3.6 | 4.55 | 1 |
| J | 3.35 | 4.0 | .6 |
| K | 3.8 | 5.9 | 2.1 |
| L | 3.55 | 5.0 | 1.4 |
| M | 5.8 | 8.0 | 2.2 |
| N | 4.15 | 5.4 | 1.2 |
| O | 2.95 | 4.7 | 1.7 |
| P | 3.45 | 3.45 | 0 |
| Q | 3.85 | 5.35 | 1.5 |
| R | 4.25 | 5.5 | 1.2 |
| S | 3.85 | 5.4 | 1.5 |
| T | 2.85 | 4.95 | 2.1 |
| U | 4.2 | 6.7 | 2.5 |

In September 1957

5 children above grade level

8 children at grade level

8 children below grade level

In June 1958

14 children above grade level

3 children at grade level

4 children below grade level

Individual Progress was as follows:

1 child progressed 3 to 3½ years

1 child progressed 2½ to 3 years

6 children progressed 2 to 2½ years

9 children progressed 1 to 1½ years

1 child progressed 1 year

1 child scored below 1 year of progress in the National Tests. In the City Test he made normal progress. The teacher felt the child made strides and the parents were satisfied.

In the City Tests administered one year apart, every child advanced. The child who progressed, for example, 3 to 3½

years was not necessarily the best reader, but one who came up from 2B to 6A level. Another child advanced from 4A to 5B level.

At the end of the year each child was asked to write his opinion of the reading program.

Pro

"Since we have been reading this way, I have not been scared."

"When I am working by myself I can get much more work done. Some people are slow readers and slow you down. By the time they "fineach" the page you could be on another page reading."

"You and I know I am a bad reader. I like individualized reading better because I am too slow."

"I never liked reading in groups since I was in first grade. It gets boring, staring at the book so long. I will not be happy when we go back to the other."

"One reason I like individualized reading is you can work independently and you don't have to wait for the slow readers. Another reason is I like the "conferences" with the teacher. I wish I could have it all through Franklin School."

"I 'espilly' like the conference in the back of the room."

Con

"My Reactshore on Reading—the work book is all right, but I do not like to write up stories."

"I do not like individualized reading because I do not know where I stand. If I heard other people read I would know where I stand."

"I don't like the way you have to wait for the conference."

"I like group reading because I can

hear other boys and girls read."

"I like to read books out loud."

The teacher's reactions

I felt deep satisfaction in being close to each child in being able to slip in a word of encouragement privately without worrying about the reaction of the group.

I was free of the frustration of someone holding back the group. These five minutes belong only to this child. Frustration, I felt, though when I tried to keep up with my omnivorous readers.

I enjoyed, and so did the children, the magic silence that followed the words "time for reading."

I developed a new respect and regard for the slow learners who worked at home in preparation of their stories and who were eager to have the conferences.

I was thrilled with my two very best readers who read widely and deeply.

I was overjoyed with the class's absorption. Even if we ran overtime, occasionally, the children did not become restless.

I have become more conscious that it is the reading skill which leads to enjoyment of reading. A child said, "I like to read hard books because I like to see if I can sound out all the big words." This child made the most progress of anyone in the class. He arrived in my class as a reading adjustment case.

I was delighted with the children's activity in the library. They were so interested—the boys in science and biography, the girls in mystery.

In a social studies project that involved the children in individual research, the class was exceptionally enthusiastic about reading for their assignment. They had no

fear of the Encyclopedia.

I feel that the greatest loss in individualized reading is in talking about the story together, sharing ideas and experiences. Emotions shared in literature make precious moments and fond memories. I missed the laughs together over many of these stories, the concern we would have felt together for certain characters, the wisdom of young finds and opinions given candidly.

I was happy over our Friday afternoon reports. The puppet stage was the favorite of both doers and watchers. To have had time for bringing this part closer to the peak of perfection!

The children knew the what, why, and wherefore of the program from beginning to end. They were encouraged to give their views. They responded willingly, thoughtfully, and honestly. We were doing something very special, our collective ego was handsomely fed. Some liked the program, some did not, but all enjoyed being a part of the year's experiment.

I was interested in doing something so entirely different. I enjoyed the challenge, especially when so many conferees tried to discourage me. I feel a sense of satisfaction about the whole year. I want to return to group reading next year because I shall have a large class. Since I felt overwhelmed sometimes trying to keep a fair conference schedule with my twenty-one eager beavers, I can't figure how I could manage with forty-three conferees waiting for me. I shall be glad to have an individualized reading program in the future. Meanwhile, I shall be considering the places in my first experience where I would make changes for improvement.

Individualized Reading: Follow-Up Activities

The purpose of this study was to find what has been done for follow-up activities of individualized reading which will maintain and strengthen skills in reading without the use of "workbook-type" activities.

The references which have been reviewed have been limited primarily to those which have appeared since 1950. Some articles prior to this time mention the use of individual reading, but indicate little which would be relevant to this study.

An outline of the types of follow-up activities which were found has been compiled, together with a bibliography in which these activities were mentioned. Many articles indicated the value of individualized reading instruction, but they did not indicate types of follow-up activities which could be used to strengthen needed skills. Few of the references reviewed described in detail the methods used to teach the child a way to go about his activity to strengthen his needed skill, but some indicated the use of teacher's manuals to fit individual needs, and some described games which were made to assist the child with his practice.

The following are a few conclusions or recommendations which the author feels may be of some value:

1. The types of activities suggested in the following outline should be adjusted to the level of the ability of the child pursuing them. Thus, these types of activities can be used with primary as well as with upper grade children; or

with pupils of lower or average ability as well as superior ability.

2. Mimeographed material, if used at all, should specifically meet the need of the child using it, and should be checked WITH the teacher in order to best help the child understand his needs.
3. There is a need for "action research" in the classroom to determine:
 - a. ways of organizing large classes for a maximum of individual help with the optimum use of teacher time in preparation.
 - b. ways individual teachers can best use follow-up activities in making use of individualized reading.

Our responsibility as teachers is not only to teach children to read for the many purposes they need, but also to teach children so they will read.

Types of Follow-up Activities for Individualized Reading:

- I. Fictional Stories
 1. Recording
 - a. Keep individual record of titles read; dates; pages.
 - b. "Beginning book report": title, author, publisher. List important characters: illustrate, name. For more capable learner: comment about the book—what liked or not liked; why someone else should read it.
 - c. If book contains several stories, list titles of most interesting ones, as well as book title.
 2. Illustrating
 - a. Illustrate main characters.
 - b. Pictures of main events in sequence.
 - c. Illustrate most exciting events, or best liked.
 - d. Make book jacket for story.

Mrs. Sharpe is a supervising teacher for U. C. L. A. in the Los Angeles elementary schools.

- e. Make diorama of favorite part of story.
- f. Make miniature stage setting for exciting scene.
- 3. Committee work
 - a. Prepare a dramatization of part of the story.
 - b. Prepare parts to identify characters in story.
 - c. Make list of questions to ask others who have read the story.
 - d. Prepare answers to such questions.
 - e. Report on books or stories relating to unit studies sections of basal readers.
 - f. Arrange book displays: "Our Favorite Books"; new and old books.
 - g. Classify book lists according to subjects; illustrate.
- 4. Oral reporting—audience situations
 - a. Show illustration and tell about it.
 - b. Prepare interesting part of story to read; tell why liked it.
 - c. Decide if story could be true; could not be. Choose selections from story to read orally to prove decision. Lower ability pupil could illustrate and tell to prove.
 - d. Interview adults concerning author; report orally.
 - e. Tell portion of story: predict how it might end, or make up different ending, or tell how reader would end it, and why, if he were the author.
- 5. Written activities.
 - a. Write title or sentence for illustrations.
 - b. Write sentence which tells of author's illustrations.
 - c. Make list of unusual, new, or difficult words.
 - d. Write something about the author (upper grades).
 - e. Write answers to blackboard or mimeographed questions prepared by teacher; group; committee.
 - f. Creative writing: original poems, plays, stories, essays; illustrate.
 - g. Select important news and write a summary for class or school newspaper.
 - h. Make bibliography: organize for mutual interests.

II. Factual Interests.

1. Recording
 - a. Make a record of what was done to follow directions of simple experiment.
 - b. Keep records of temperatures, weights, measures.
 - c. Title and pages where directions were found.
2. Research
 - a. To identify collections, such as shells, stamps.
 - b. Make scrapbooks of pictures of collections—pets, animals, social studies interests, science.
 - c. Find picture words to illustrate each letter of alphabet; find pictures to illustrate these words or draw own illustrations.
 - d. Find stories which will answer questions of the group concerning social studies, science, other interests.
 - e. Before taking a trip: plan what to see, how to go, places of interest to visit.
3. Committee work
 - a. Groups work to find facts concerning interests.
 - b. Organizing and recording information and realia.
 - c. Organize bulletin board, book table, or collections.
 - d. Classify book lists according to subjects.
 - e. Illustrating: time lines, murals, experiments.
 - f. Compile bibliography for background of current news events; arrange display.
4. Oral reporting—make preparation for the following:
 - a. Tell about a simple experiment and results.
 - b. Report findings concerning group interests which have been learned through trips or interviews.
 - c. Tell about collections.
 - d. Report interesting facts found when reading about interests.
5. Written activities
 - a. Make lists of subject words: colors, food, phases of science, flowers, pets, etc.

- b. Make a "picture" dictionary illustrating picture or subject words.
- c. Find answers to questions of the group; list pages; make a bibliography file for reference.
- d. Record references to information found in library: pictures, junior encyclopedias, topical interests; include topic, pages, authorities, dates.
- e. Summarize information learned from charts, graphs, maps.
- f. Compile bibliography of mutual interests; make 3 x 5 card file for reference and expansion.
- g. Choose a page in a story; make a list of all the words that begin with capitals; be able to tell why.
- h. Organize scrap books showing words of:
 - similar structure, beginnings, endings.
 - rhyming characteristics.

III. Study Skills.

- 1. Games
 - a. Word drill, such as "I Know-I Do Not Know."
 - b. "Bingo" type games.
 - c. Following direction games for word drill.
 - d. Matching words and pictures.
- 2. Committee work, or study teams
 - a. Word analysis exercises.
 - b. Sight vocabulary practice.
 - c. Phrasing and expression in oral reading.
 - d. Help in speeding reading and skimming.
- 3. Oral—with teacher
 - a. Word analysis—structural, auditory, visual discrimination.
 - b. Word meanings—reminding children of own experiences which will help get new meanings and mental pictures and ideas.
 - c. Discuss special needs: prefixes, suffixes, unusual vowel sounds, rhyming words.
 - d. Working out group discussion standards.
- 4. Written activities.
 - a. Make own study word cards.
 - b. Make list of unknown words; indicate location; check list with teacher.
 - c. Find words that look alike.
 - d. Find words that:
 - mean the same
 - mean the opposite
 - are written the same but have different meanings.
 - e. Find and illustrate picture words.

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Creative Drama in Britain

As an American educated in Ohio, trained as a teacher in England, and teaching in Wales, I am in a position to see several different approaches to education. On the whole I can fairly say that the American approach and study of methods of learning reading, arithmetic, spelling, and similar subjects is thorough. However, there is some correct criticism about the rigidity of the American system, and the lack of individuality of teachers on the West side of the Atlantic. Within quite broad limits, the British teacher has much greater freedom in what and how he teaches. He is master in his castle classroom and therefore the good teachers are really good and the poor teachers can be really bad. It also means that on the whole, the children are taught in progressive stages of development as shown by their progress, not the progress of the text book or the school syllabus.

Along these lines, the British teacher has turned to creative drama as a means of utilizing activity work. It was started in Birmingham, and is now spreading over the islands. The main feature of this creative activity class is to set the child a simple task, and let him do it in his own way at his own level with the *least possible teacher interference*. It is introduced by choosing some common well known experience such as a nursery rhyme, and allowing different children or groups of children to act them in their own way; to create their own characters.

An example of improper technique was shown when a teacher invited observers to see her "creative drama" class. This

work concerned *Little Miss Muffett*. Each pair followed the same routine, each little boy hid behind the piano, each little girl sat on the stool and the boy chased her, until one little boy carefully tiptoed to the center of the room, squeezed into a small ball, and closed his eyes. Then his partner sat on her tuffet and began eating. Our hero opened his eyes, saw Miss Muffett, threw out an imaginary rope, and quietly climbed down it to startle Miss Muffett away. The teacher explained that the little boy was out of the room when she gave instructions!

Working with a C and D stream of 11 year old boys, I have found that they have taken to drama for the first time in their lives with great gusto. After a brief talk about drama from cave day to present T.V., they were asked if they would like to work on drama. Suggesting nursery rhymes as a common denominator of experience, they followed these, and chose *The Three Bears* as their first attempt. Four boys from each row were chosen, or volunteered, and after they had a brief discussion on their own of production problems, they presented their versions. To give some idea of a theatre, the audience was asked to close their eyes, and when the cast was ready, "lights up" allowed the play to start. After each of the three plays on the first day, class discussion was led with, "What was good about the play?" and "What was bad about the play?"

The next day, a group of these boys

Mr. Miller is a teacher at Maindee Boys' School, Chepstow Road, Newport, England.

came up with the pronouncement that they turned out to be Peter Pan, à la Disney. Production difficulties were surprisingly overcome. The classroom seats had been arranged so that they faced the center of the room from three sides. The group on the left was the home scene, the group on the right was the Pirate scene, the group on the left of the back rows was made up of the Never Never Boys, and the Indians were in the other block of seats. Thus each part of the class was at one time or another audience and then performers. After the first group presented Peter Pan, the fourth remaining group wanted to present their version of the Three Bears. It was worthwhile, for the little bear introduced the bear walk.

By that time Peter Pan had permeated all of their thoughts, and we had several groups start Peter. After several casts had auditioned, a complete cast was chosen, and the play learned in real earnest. All of the dialogue was their own. The teacher gave some direction and plot suggestions. The arrangement of the seats was the teacher's idea, but other than that they were on their own. The songs of Disney fame were learned in the music lesson and within four weeks they had a good production of the show. It was never the same, and they revamped it at all times, but from a creative and dramatic viewpoint, these were good learning activities. Class discussion of various scenes and interpretations was carried on at all times. It was carefully guided to keep the boys from being vindictive. This was done by a class of boys who had an average I.Q. of 93.1 and an average reading age of 9.3. The enthusiasm showed up in other activities: compositions, speech work, art, and

physical education.

There should be some mention of the use of classroom materials. The desks are over 50 years old and are two-seaters of the red school vintage. Behind the Home group was a large wooden table, and in the center of the room was the teacher's desk and a small table. To get the idea of Peter and Tinker Belle flying, they started from the large table, jumped onto the top of the desks and then onto the two tables in the center. When Wendy and the boys tried to fly, all jumped to the floor, but only Peter and Tinker were able to keep on. One addition was a real shadow, who had his shoes sewed to Peter's feet and followed Peter in all of his movements.

Peter Pan was interrupted for a Nativity play for the Girls' and Boys' schools to present to the parents. Here the training in the drama class showed up, and a 20 minute production with 9 carols and 15 choric speaking parts was learned as well as the mime to go with the choric speaking. These 45 in the cast were forced to work in a small (16' x 10') area and did their play nicely.

After the Christmas recess, some teaching in mime was done. Here the whole class was shown that ideas can be communicated with mime and no words. To give them practice, class activities done in their seats were given. All were told to close their eyes, imagine they had a nice big ice cream cone in their hand, and on the word go, open their eyes and eat it. Next was an ice cream sandwich. This was followed by a dish of ice cream eaten in a posh or very "classy" restaurant. Actual teaching was done by bringing good examples out to the front for them to see, and getting comments on the details of

this work. Later individual projects were set, with children volunteering to present a mime for the rest of the class to guess. Here the teacher was able to help by presenting a man going to a movie and all the vicissitudes of sitting on chewing gum, eating bananas, being scared, and made to laugh. One boy, I.Q. 81, and reading age 7, repeated about 25% of this mime with great gusto. It was his first appearance before the class in any form. Later groups of mimers were brought out for guessing, and then dialogue was started on their own part, and soon they were presenting plays on their own of their own composition.

This was followed with stories and poems. The Owl and the Pussy Cat proved good. Other de la Mare poems work well, and the idea of telling a story for them to reproduce works well. The magic nail for making soup is good. The nail in boiling water plus an odd potato, cabbage, onion, end of the meat joint adds up to a fine feast. Ideal subjects get all of the class into the play.

The final job this class attempted with good results was the writing, acting, and reading of a half hour radio show to be recorded on tape. The idea had been introduced earlier by using a dummy microphone for speech work. A news show was written by the teacher, and then they

wrote their own. Later they wrote news items of their own choice, and worked in groups to edit and rewrite these for the final show. Continuity was too hard for most of them, but two or three were able to get the idea, and spontaneous impromptu introductions of the news items were possible. American children would perhaps get the idea sooner.

The rest of the program was made up of a conversation game, a play, and reading and talking about some compositions. These items were all spontaneous in that they had to think of the answers, and the play continuity was made up as it went. While the grammar was poor and the speech was far from Standard English, it started the children into the work. From that time, higher standards could easily be introduced. It gave purpose to their work. It opened their eyes to other subjects, it trained them to be truly critical, and it used some of the modern scientific and electronic equipment in allowing them to express themselves.

The crucial point is that the teacher stays out of this classroom play making as much as possible. The play is for the children's education NOT the production of a show for an audience. Britain is using this idea with good results, perhaps America can as well.

How often a teacher looks at a child with perceptive eyes and envisions what he may become in the years ahead. She may patiently correct the spelling, praise the effort, aid the thinking, and with a hand on his shoulder repeat to herself the words of Gibran, "If he [the teacher] is indeed wise, he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind."

From Alice M. Meeker, *Teaching Beginners to Read*. Rinehart Educational Pamphlets. Rinehart and Co., Inc.

Using Literature to Extend Children's Experiences

When I began teaching in the first grade after a period of not having taught, I found that there were many problems confronting little boys and girls that somehow I had never been aware of in the past. I tried helping them; I remember especially a child coming to me and talking to me about having nightmares. I had done some reading about talking out problems and that sometimes other children could give help that adults couldn't. Many times I ran up against a blank wall because I had no motivation. A child had a problem, but when it came to discussing it with other children, he was reticent about talking. I struggled along for several years aware of these problems that children had, seeing children who couldn't manage to fit into the group for one reason or another or had problems at home that they weren't able to understand. I never felt that I was particularly successful in helping them until I discovered that stories I read very often had characters in them with the same problems my children had. Once they heard about someone else with a problem, the ice was broken a little bit, and they were willing to talk about what was wrong.

Last year I worked a little further on this experimentation with literature, helping my children to get to problems that needed discussing. By using *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* by Heaton and Lewis, I found several books that seemed appropriate to my class, and I tried them as problem solvers.

For example, I had in my classroom at the time a little boy much smaller than any other child in my room. The children called attention to his smallness quite often, and this child resented it very much; so much so that he was beginning to be like a little bantam rooster. He fought at the drop of a hat if anyone said that he was little, and he fought always to prove that his littleness made no difference.

One book I had read about in *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* was called *The Smallest Boy in the Class*. I used this with my class and on the very first page, the class right away said, "Why, that's Jerry!" Jerry was on his feet with his fists up, ready to defend himself. The child in the story, however, although the smallest boy in the class, turned out to have the biggest heart of anyone. Jerry was aware that here was his problem. The class was aware that it was a problem to be the smallest boy in the class.

I can't say that this solved Jerry's problem. All I can say is that it did help to bring it out into the open. It helped the members of the class to realize what some of the problems of being little were to Jerry. They were much more understanding of him, and when he left us recently, I believe we never had a child who has been as missed as Jerry, and the children often say they hope that he will come back again.

Although Jerry still resented being

Mrs. Comer is a teacher in the Fruit Ridge School, in Sacramento County, California.

little, perhaps in some way he had gained stature with the class; and who knows, maybe a little of it was through talking out his problem with his peers.

Another time I read *Spotty* to my children. I hoped this story might have some relationship to the social problem of my little lame girl. Many children were impatient with her when she failed to keep up in games we played, or when her clumsiness caused accidents to others. She wanted a part in the group but was becoming discouraged and began to shy off from group play. *Spotty* was a rabbit who was different. He had spots while his whole family was white. *Spotty* had a big problem because he was different. When he met a family of spotted rabbits with one rabbit who was white, his own problem lost much of its importance to him. This story would be very good to use if you had a child of another race in your room, or one with a physical handicap which was keeping him from being accepted. You don't need to use names; the children somehow transfer a meaning to their classroom relationship which helps them realize there are actually no differences deep down in people.

The story that I had the most success with last year and which I recorded on tape as I told it to the children was the story of *Timid Timothy*. I chose to read *Timid Timothy* to the class because a little girl had been coming to me every morning frightened by a big dog she had to pass as she came to school. It finally got to the place where she was late to school, and at last she came in tears because the dog had barked at her and run out at her. In the story *Timid Timothy* is a kitten who is afraid of everything. His

mother is trying to help him overcome his fear. First she takes him to the zoo, thinking that seeing other animals where they can't hurt him will make him realize that really there is nothing to be afraid of. But even the zoo sign has big eyes that scare him. At this point I stopped reading and encouraged some discussion on the part of the class.

Teacher: Does this trip to the zoo make Timothy into a brave kitten?

Class: No, no, no, no.

Teacher: Why not, do you suppose?

Jack: I know.

Teacher: Why, Jack?

Jack: If kittens seem too shy, they don't like to see anything.

Teacher: Well, do you have any idea what the mother cat could do to make Timothy less shy?

Ronald: Well, maybe teach him something, like keep him away from dangerous things that scare him.

Teacher: I see, well then he should never go to a zoo and his mother should never let him go outside where there are dogs and keep him tied inside all the time?

Ronald: No, make him stay a few days and then he'll get over it.

Teacher: You think he'd just get over it by himself, Cindy?

Cindy: I think his mother, every time she takes him some place, should take him with her every place she goes and then he'll get used to the people.

Teacher: All right. That's going to mean that mother cat has a baby along with her all the time. Craig.

Craig: Well, see, he never saw those people before.

Teacher: You think it was because it was the first time?

Craig: Yes.

Teacher: Dan.

Dan: Well, I think she ought to let him get used to it by himself instead of just begging him and asking him.

voice. 'If it was a lion, I could have scared him. If it was a bear, I could have scared him. If it was an elephant, I could have scared him. Even if it was a dog, I could have scared him.' 'It wasn't a lion,' said his mother. 'It wasn't a bear, nor an elephant. No indeed, or I would have let you scare them. It was a bee, thousands of bees.' 'Well, why didn't you let me scare them?' said Timothy. 'Because,' said his mother, licking the fur the wrong way over his eye, 'even if you are my big, brave, bold Timothy, you must learn not to go around looking for trouble.'

Teacher: Were you surprised when the mother carried him off away from something?

Class: Yes.

Teacher: You think she was being timid then?

Some children: Yes.

Debra: No, she was just saving him.

Teacher: Protecting him. Are there some things that we have to be protected from?

Class: Yes.

Teacher: Are there some things that we need to be afraid of? Jack, what was it you said you were afraid of?

Jack: A black widow.

Teacher: Should we be afraid of a black widow?

Class: Sure. Yes.

Teacher: Are there some things that it's all right to be afraid of?

Class: Yes.

Teacher: If you saw a coiled-up rattlesnake, would you want to be foolish enough to say, 'Hm'm, I'm so brave that rattlesnake can't do anything to me' and walk over and pick him up?

Cindy: You have to be sure before you can touch it.

Teacher: That'd be the best way. Ronald, what did you have to say?

Ronald: Well, there's one thing that makes me real scared, you know what I told

you, a lizard. There was this boy up at Buck's Lake and he tried to kill one and it came up and bit him real hard on the finger and he had to have a bandage, you know.

Teacher: That's where you got to be afraid of them?

Cindy: If I saw a rattlesnake, you know what I'd do? I would just stand as still as I could so the rattlesnake might think you were a statue and he wouldn't touch you. You know something. The rattles are the stuff that has poison in them and the more the rattles are, the worse the poison is.

Teacher: Is the poison in the rattles?

Class: No.

Teacher: The poison is in the rattlesnake's mouth, in little sacs up in his jaws.

Debra: Well, we went up camping and when my aunt and my sister went back to the camp, there was a snake there in the middle of the road and they picked him up, and I asked my aunt where the poison was and she said, 'It's up in the teeth and when he bites and makes little holes, it will come out.'

Teacher: Do you think Timid Timothy is going to be so afraid of dogs anymore?

Class: No.

Teacher: Do you think it helped him to learn that he could snarl at a dog and make him run?

Class: Um hum.

Teacher: Do you think maybe mother also gave him the idea that there are some things that it is all right to be afraid of?

The little girl whom I intended to help by using this story never once said anything while we were making this recording. While the story was being read, I wondered if anything had happened at all. About a week later, she came to me and told me the final episode of her story. Actually I suppose you can say the book did no good, because an adult had stepped in and seen her difficulty and had apparently called the dog pound and had

Teacher: I see. You think mother cat is babying him too much then.

Debra: If the mother cat and the baby would go to the zoo and keep the little baby kitten away from the big animals the little baby kitten could get close to the littlest animals.

Teacher: Well, you've given me some pretty good suggestions. Debra, what were you going to say?

Debra: Well, you should teach him how to do all the little things and not frighten him and go to the little pets like the little elephants and then go to the big ones and then he wouldn't be too frightened.

Teacher: Well, that's a good suggestion, start out with little things.

The story continues and Timothy is frightened of everything still, even when he goes to a toy store. He is afraid of stuffed animals, until he finally realizes that they aren't going to hurt him. Along about this point, I stopped again in my reading of the story to tell them about having been afraid, as a little girl, of dogs. I talked with them about the way my mother had talked with me at this point and some of the ways that she had helped me. Then I asked the children if they were afraid of anything at all. This next little section I chose simply because it does express a few of their fears; also I like some of the interchange of conversation between the children.

Frances: I'm afraid of cats.

Teacher: Have you tried doing anything about your being afraid of cats? Have you ever talked to your mother about it? Does she know you are afraid of cats?

Frances: Yes.

Ronald: I'm afraid of lizards and my Dad is too and my Mom is too.

Teacher: Lizards?

Dan: I'm not.

Ronald: My sister is too.

Dan: I'm not, I love lizards.

Ronald: When you go around the end, the other shore of Buck's Lake near the Dam, well there's lizards.

Teacher: Is there anything harmful about those lizards?

Ronald: I don't know, but they're quite big, about this long and they have a tail about that long and they're about that tall.

Teacher: Are all lizards poisonous, Ronald?

Debra: No, some are green, some are brown.

Ronald: They aren't all poisonous, but I think these are.

Teacher: But, you are still afraid of all lizards?

Ronald: Yes.

Cindy: We're afraid of the poison kind of lizards.

Teacher: Do you know one when you see one?

After Timothy felt that he was just very brave from going into the toy shop and using his mother's method of arching his back and going Fstttt at the toy animals and they not doing anything in return to him, he goes out and meets a very small puppy dog. Although he doesn't use exactly his mother's formula for frightening the puppy dog, he does manage to frighten him and is so elated that he runs home to tell his mother that he is no longer afraid of anything. The conclusion of the story, plus the things that the children had to say at the rather surprise ending that the story has, follows now.

"Then she stood still, very still. They heard a humming noise, like a top or maybe a small lion. It was very near. Bzzzz Bzzzz Bzzzz. 'It's a bee.' Timothy's mother picked him up by the scruff of the neck and ran him home as fast as she could go. When she put Timothy down, he was angry. 'Why did you run,' he said in a big

graphic nature. Also the writer noted the type of information that was given. The following statements are examples of the type of information.

We are in Arizona. And most of the United States is north of Arizona.

They were on the Nile River. They had gone up as far as the ship could go.

Dick Park rode all the way out to St. Joe to join his father. Clear across the country that was—from New York to Missouri.

Long ago, in a far off Chinese city, lived a rich man.

When the circus left its winter quarters to travel all around the country, Dorothy and her mother returned to their home in California. California would be a fine place for Joe Chimp to stay.

In tabulating the terms in the readers, a region, country, city, or physical geography term was counted only once for each story, even though the place or term was mentioned several times in the story.

The readers bearing copyright dates 1945-1957 mentioned 65 different places. In the Meighan and Barth study made in 1938,¹ books having copyright dates 1925-1930 mentioned 102 different places; in readers copyrighted 1930-1937, 109 places were mentioned. Such contrast suggests several questions:

1. Why have the number of places mentioned declined so noticeably in a period when Americans are more world conscious than ever before?
2. Are names of places too difficult for eight year olds?
3. Do teachers and writers find or think that leaving out names of specific places makes the reading easier or less trouble to the teacher?

Another interesting contrast between the readers published 1925-1937 and those of 1945-1957 is the relatively few readers and the few stories in which certain place names occur; for instance, America is mentioned in 38 stories in readers copyrighted 1925-1930 and in 23 stories in readers of 1930-1937. In

present day readers America is mentioned in only five readers and in only eleven stories. No place is mentioned in more than eleven stories.

The writer decided to check the place names found in present third grade readers with those listed in Thorndike and Lorge, *The Teachers' Word Book of 30,000 Words*. Twenty of the place names from the third grade readers did not appear in Thorndike and Lorge. On the basis of their research Thorndike and Lorge recommend that certain place names should be taught for permanent knowledge if they occur in third readers. Twelve of the place names found in present day third grade readers are among those listed by Thorndike and Lorge. They are: America, Boston, California, Chicago, China, England, Europe, France, New York, Spain, United States, and Washington. The writer believes that no one would question the importance of the above list but there are probably some other names that would appear if such a study were made today.

A teacher, no doubt, in deciding what places to teach for permanent knowledge should consider the present and probable future importance of a place. An example will illustrate: The Antarctic Ocean is mentioned in two stories and is not listed in Thorndike and Lorge yet during 1955-1958 the Antarctic Ocean and Antarctica have been prominent in world news as given in newspapers, on radio and television. Should not both be taught for permanent knowledge?

What should the teacher do about teaching these stories which introduce place names? Today even a third grader has been taken out of his immediate environment into the whole world. The radio and television have brought the world into the family living room. Families travel far more than formerly. As Dr. Nesbitt says in an article: "At the beginning of this school year, a first grade found that,

¹Marion Nesbitt, "A Creative Approach to Learning," *N.E.A. Journal*, 47, (January 1958), p. 15.

something done about the dog, because he was definitely enough of an annoyance and apparently vicious enough that he needed to be taken away. Nana's problem was solved for her, but not by the book. I hope though that talking it over this way, I helped not just the one that I was intending to help, but perhaps gave many others a release by being able to tell a few things they were afraid of.

These problems of our children may seem very simple to us in our adult world, but I think that children need a chance to

talk about the things that are troubling them. The more they talk about them, the more freely they should be able to get them out into the open where they can be seen and perhaps helped, either by this discussion method or by someone's realizing that there is a problem there which he didn't even know existed. Many times the right story read at the right time can be the key which unlocks hidden and half-formed thoughts which, when expressed, can help children understand their lives a little better.

ZOE A. THRALLS

Geographic Terms in Third Grade

In 1938 a study was made of the geographic material introduced in third grade readers.¹ Meighan and Barth analyzed ten third grade books copyrighted during the years 1925-1930 and ten copyrighted from 1930-1937. They found that third grade pupils were introduced to a great variety of words with geographic significance such as Brittany, France, England, Far North, North Pole and South Pole. They found that books bearing copyright dates of 1925-1930 mentioned 102 different localities; 109 places were mentioned in readers copyrighted 1930-1937.

The present writer was interested in finding whether the number of geographic references is increasing or decreasing in recent third grade readers. The writer was interested not only in the number of place names introduced but also in what other geographic terms were introduced. Therefore, fourteen third grade basic readers copyrighted 1945-57 were examined with the following questions in mind:

1. Do the third grade basic readers, copy-

righted 1945-1957, introduce more or less place names than the third grade readers copyrighted 1925-1930 and 1930-1937?

2. How generally do the recent third grade basic readers introduce names of specific places?

3. How generally do the third grade basic readers published between 1945-1957 introduce physical geography terms such as ocean, mountain, river, and hill.

The Meighan and Barth study did not include the question stated above.

The fourteen books examined by the writer were as follows: *Along Friendly Roads*, *Beyond Treasure Valley*, *Our Good Neighbors*, *Friends Far and Near*, *Looking Ahead*, *Finding Favorite Stories From Everywhere*, *Sharing Adventures*, *If I were Going*, *New Streets and Roads*, *Enchanting Stories*, *Far Away Ports*, and *Climbing Higher*.

A careful analysis of the books was made, listing the names of the places and the physical geography terms introduced. The terms tabulated were limited to names of specific places and to definite physical geography terms so that there would be no question as their geo-

¹Mary Meighan and Ethel Barth, "Geographic Material in Third Grade Readers" *The Elementary English Review*, (December, 1938), pp. 299-301.

Dr. Thralls is Professor of Geography and Education at the University of Pittsburgh.

Remedial Reading in the Junior High School: A Practical Report

Philosophy of Remedial Reading

The philosophy of remedial reading may be conveniently divided into two areas—social adjustment and academic development. Both are essential considerations in insuring the success of any remedial reading program. Some students will need more social considerations than academic, while others need the academic concentration. How much of each to provide will depend upon the teacher's knowledge and understanding of each individual child. No cut and dried formula may be presented here, although certain general principles will be noted.

In the area of social adjustment there are a number of considerations. It is of the utmost necessity that the teacher take a positive attitude toward his or her charges. Such comments as telling students they are not as good as when the teacher went to school or pointing out to specific students that their work is miserable, not only must not be said but not even considered in the teacher's mind. Most of these same students have heard similar reflections before or have felt them in their own mind and already are rather painfully aware of their deficiencies before they reach junior high school. Instead, the teacher must find areas of success in the student's work and attempt gradually to build the student up by making judicious use of positive reassurances.¹

The teacher must also try to promote a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. This is a bit harder to do, inasmuch as the teacher tends to be anxious for the student's success. However, it should be remembered that this feeling of anxiety for success in reading in many cases has caused failure up to this point. The

teacher may play down this anxiousness on the part of many students by starting out with materials that are not too difficult for the student to read, playing educational reading games rather than spending all the time on straight academic drill, and not forcing the student to any feeling of tough competition except when he has a chance for some success and recognition for his work.

Other students are poor readers because of a long pattern of failure to behave well in the classroom. Ruling these students by threat of physical force may be the solution for having an orderly classroom so the rest of the students can learn. However, it is not the solution to promoting an atmosphere in which the disciplinary problems will feel a need to try and learn to read better. Perhaps the most successful technique in getting such students to do a better job is to talk with them in ordinary conversation and find out what their specific interests in life are. When this is done, it is up to the creativity of the individual teacher to find specific jobs and projects related to their interest areas. Naturally, exploring these areas will require reading, and thus the twofold problem of discipline and reading is at least partially solved.²

As a last consideration of social adjustment, the individual teacher might do well by promoting a feeling of group loyalty so that they will want to work together and stick together throughout junior high school. This is accomplished by having treat days at the end of the

Mr. Witt is a teacher in the Rockford College Reading Clinic and the Rockford Public School System (Illinois).

¹E. W. Dolch, *Elementary English*, "Success in Remedial Reading"—March 1953, p. 133.

²Helen Robinson, *Why Children Fail in Reading*, (University of Chicago 1946) p. 85-87.

during the summer, members of their group had visited the farm, the seashore, the mountains, New England, Florida, Texas, Hawaii, and Mexico. The pupils' conversation was stimulating; their interests national and international." Because of these conditions of modern life every child should have the opportunity to read stories of other places in his own country and also of foreign lands and peoples. However, if the child is to read with understanding, the teacher must make the place whether in the United States or in a foreign land real and meaningful to the child. He must help the child to build mental images of places and to gain some knowledge of the environmental features of the regions, countries and cities introduced in the stories.

In order to clarify concepts and build meaning the teacher should use maps and the globe to aid the child in orienting himself and to give significance to places. The place should be located on a map or globe in relation to the child's home. He should use pictures, class discussion, and the children's experiences to build a background of meaning, so that the child may read with understanding.

Physical Geography Terms

The writer found 58 terms naming land and water features, direction and weather conditions. All were necessary to the story, for instance:

A little calf was born in the ocean on a sunny day in spring.

Sharp Ears was born near an island in the ocean.

The sea, outside the coral reef, was a great blue circle.

Little Deer's village was on the wide plains.

The village was right on top of a cliff.

There were many kinds of animals on the prairie.

Twenty-seven of the terms tabulated are recommended by Thorndike and Lorge to be taught for permanent knowledge. Some of these are bay, brook, coast, desert, east, hill,

island, lake, mountain, north, ocean, and river. However, if the child reads the story with understanding, concepts for all of the terms must be developed. An example is the word fog. Fog is used very effectively in ten stories. If the child reads these stories with understanding and appreciation he must know what fog is. He must mentally see, feel, and smell the fog.

There is another problem. The child may not know its meaning as a geographical term. An illustration is the term plain. The child may know one meaning of the word plain but may not know its meaning as a geographical term descriptive of the earth's surface. Yet it was used in four readers and ten stories. In order to develop the meaning of unfamiliar words and in some instances new meanings to old words, the teacher must be conscious of such geographical terms. He must use visual aids—maps, pictures, and sketches as well as explanations, because these terms must be associated with visual images if they are to have real meaning to the child. The child must see in his mind's eyes an island, a coast, lake, mountain, coral reef. As Dr. Nesbitt says in the January 1948 *N.E.A. Journal*, "Will we more fully accept responsibility for helping children to build geographic concepts of space and location? Will we help them to understand how these concepts affect human behavior?"¹

This limited study reveals that judging from the fourteen basic readers analyzed, (1) a considerable amount of geographic material is introduced in third grade readers, (2) many of the stories and poems would not be very meaningful to the children unless they knew the location and something about the environmental conditions of the region introduced; (3) many of the geographic terms introduced need the use of maps, pictures, and sketches to make them clear to children.

¹Marion Nesbitt, "A Creative Approach to Education," *N.E.A. Journal* 47 (January 1958), pp. 14-16.

| Student | IQ | S. A. Score |
|---------|-----|-------------|
| M | 98 | 5.6 |
| N | 102 | 5.6 |
| O | 105 | 6.0 |
| P | 88 | 5.3 |
| Q | 100 | 4.9 |
| R | 89 | 5.7 |
| S | 92 | 5.6 |
| T | 95 | 4.1 |
| U | 96 | 4.6 |
| V | 94 | 5.3 |
| W | 98 | 4.7 |
| X | 97 | 5.9 |
| Y | 100 | 5.0 |
| Z | 91 | 5.0 |

Teaching Procedures Used

Concerning methods used in teaching this seventh grade group, it should be stated first of all that at Roosevelt virtually all English-Social Studies classes are taught in a two hour block. In the case of this particular room, it was decided to build the basis of study around reading improvement and social studies in the form of world geography, with formal English grammar brought in only when it fit into the reading program.

In all the specific methods listed below, the teacher attempted to follow this basic approach: (1) Build up the student's security in the classroom by building up his self-confidence. (2) Give him an abundance of reading materials at his ability level. (3) Gradually give him more and more difficult materials, while at the same time attempting to improve his word attack, comprehension, and speed skills in reading.

It is believed that the use of an Educational Development Laboratories Controlled Reader (75 Prospect St., Huntington, New York) aided the students in reading speed and comprehension. The EDL Reader shows on a screen, line by line or word by word, filmstrips of an interesting historical, scientific, and fantasy nature. Reading rate can be adjusted from 50 to 910 words a minute on this machine, which was used an average of three times a week.

Care was taken to show the first stories slowly. All filmstrips were previewed by the teacher in an effort to provide student motivation before the strips were presented. Later in the year a given filmstrip was shown twice with a discussion period in between.

This particular group started at 100 words per minute and gradually increased reading speed to 200 words per minute. At no time in the four months of use did a first showing reach the maximum speed.

Comprehension tests of ten questions were given after each second showing, and when a majority of the class achieved a score of 70% or better, the machine's rate was raised.

Typical student remarks about the machine were, "Gee, when I pick up a book I certainly can read faster." "Man, I enjoyed that story today." "It really helps me." At other times students were heard to remark, "Do we have to do that again?" or "I just can't keep up with that thing." In general the class seemed to enjoy using the machine, and profited from it in speed and comprehension, with the obvious drawback that three or four of the slowest readers were unable to keep up with the rest of the group.

The McCall-Crabbs Standard Test Lessons in Reading (Bureau of Publication Teachers Coll., Columbia U.) Levels B and C were used to increase speed and understanding. These books contain about 75 human interest stories of three or four paragraphs each with about eight to ten questions after each to test comprehension. The student is given three minutes to read the selection and answer the questions. Reading level according to grade is indicated at the bottom of each page and is based on the number of questions the student answered correctly.

Although the students did not greet the twice-weekly use of these books with bursts of enthusiasm, they did not seem to resent them either, and many pupils showed a keen interest in increasing the supposed reading status as

week, permitting class officers to hold meetings and help the teacher determine such policies as may be relegated to student control, and by having a number of homeroom parties throughout the school year.

In the area of academic development there are again a number of basic principles which may be followed with success.

Primary to the success of any remedial program is a well-structured procedure concerning word attack. This word attack situation should include both the teaching of phonic principles and word structure analysis, as well as sight recognition. The teacher may promote this by using workbooks and creating his own materials. These word attack practice sessions should be immediately followed by practical oral and silent reading as a means of re-inforcement of the word attack lesson.

A student needs not only to be able to attack words and figure them out; he also needs to be able to read with comprehension and speed. Therefore the remedial teacher should also attempt to provide materials which will facilitate the mastering of these skills. Specific recommendations of how the goals of this paragraph and the preceding one may be achieved will be answered in the sections of the paper to follow.

It is hoped that when the student has been equipped with the skills of being better able to figure out words, comprehend them, and read with speed, the teacher will be able to encourage the basic consideration of all remedial reading—the encouragement of enjoyment of reading on one's own.

As secondary goals in the remedial reading

program the teacher should provide exercises dealing with vocabulary and spelling development as these areas are definitely related to the reading situation.

Method of Setting up Group and Determining Abilities

Believing in the necessity of a remedial reading program at the junior high school level, David Schoonmaker, the principal, and four teachers, E. Theodore Danielson, Bette Lee, Myrtle Johnson, and the writer embarked upon such a program in the school years, 1957-1958. Four homerooms were created at the seventh grade level. It is with one of these homerooms that the following section will deal.

Concerning goals for this group, they were the same as stated in the preceding philosophy—social adjustment and academic development in word recognition, comprehension, speed, and enjoyment of reading.

In this group there were twenty-six pupils selected on the basis of poor reading achievement in grade school. The record of poor grade school achievement was based on ratings reported from grade school, previous Stanford Achievement Tests, and conferences with grade school officials and teachers. The average age of the students was twelve years, four months. The group had a median reading score of 5.1 based on the paragraph understanding and vocabulary sections of the Stanford Achievement Test, Form L, given September 25, 1957. The highest reading score was 6.3 and the lowest was 3.9. Below are listed the individual students with their reading levels and their IQ rating on the Otis Self-Administering Test of Intelligence (Form Alpha, September 1956)

| <i>Student A</i> | <i>IQ</i> | <i>S. A. Score</i> | <i>Student</i> | <i>IQ</i> | <i>S. A. Score</i> |
|------------------|-----------|--------------------|----------------|-----------|--------------------|
| A | 94 | 4.0 | G | 98 | 5.4 |
| B | 77 | 4.5 | H | 74 | 3.9 |
| C | 79 | 4.5 | I | 88 | 4.7 |
| D | 96 | 6.3 | J | 93 | 5.5 |
| E | 87 | 6.3 | K | 94 | 6.3 |
| F | 95 | 6.1 | L | 90 | — |

with instructions to unscramble them. At the same time individual words were also given in which the letters had to be placed in the correct order. These games were good as a diversion, although there is some question as to their educational value.

(9) *Words Within Words Game.* In putting across the idea that many of the large words in our language are made up of smaller words, the group was given such words as basement, assassinate, extraordinary, satisfactorily, and toehold. The students were then asked to find as many words within words as possible. This was excellent from the standpoint of student approval, and a noted increase in oral reading ability.

(10) *Crossword Puzzle Game.* Using Dolch's 2000 most common words as basic material, the student is asked to construct his own crossword puzzle, building from one word to another. Students, in order to get credit for each word, must be able to read them. The smaller the group the more effective this game is, because of the length of time required in reading the words aloud.

To get the students to read as much as possible, outside as well as during school, most homework assignments were given in literature books of high interest and controlled vocabulary skills. Although the teacher was careful to make these assignments in moderation, much complaining followed each assignment.

To insure that this homework was done, however, the teacher consistently gave short quizzes the following day.

Surprisingly, perhaps, one of the most popular activities among the language arts was creative writing. Students consistently engaged in this activity twice a week. Great care was taken to give almost complete freedom in the choice of material. Students were allowed at all times to write about anything they wished, but there was always a list of five or six suggested topics on the board to inspire the hesi-

tant. Sample topics were: my greatest fear, when my father gets angry, when my dog died, dinner time at our house, jobs I'm expected to do at home, why I like my room.

While the students wrote, they had the opportunity of asking the teacher to spell on the board any words they did not know. Everyone in the class took advantage of this opportunity.

The following day many of the students were asked to read their compositions aloud, sometimes hearing the teacher read others. This period of writing and spelling was greeted with remarkable enthusiasm.

In conjunction with the creative writing program, a free reading period was introduced. This accounted for the varying amounts of time needed to complete individual compositions. Each student brought to class a library book each day and read from it as others finished written assignments.

A vigorous attempt was made to secure the right kind of reading material by having the school librarian periodically bring books to class and discuss them with the pupils, having students bring books of their own from home which they particularly liked, having the teacher bring low level, good books which he had enjoyed in school, getting books through school English department funds, and writing to book companies for free copies of outstanding children's books.

In particular, with marked success, the Reader's Digest Adult Education Reader and Reading Skill Builder were used.¹

By these means a room library of over 300 books was built up. Students kept track of the number of books read on book cards easily accessible at the front of the class, and certain periods of time were set aside when students could share reading experiences by telling about the books they had read. These free reading sessions were held three times a week for

¹Walter B. Barbe, *Elementary English, "High Interest Level Reading Materials,"* May 1953, p. 283.

indicated at the bottom of each page.

At the beginning of the use of these books the teacher permitted the student to have four minutes in working out the questions and gradually cut the time down to the recommended three minutes. In correcting the answers care was taken to discuss each answer if there was some question concerning it so that the student might do better the next time.

During the course of the year a great number of language games were used to promote better word attack. Some of these games were:

(1) *Reading and Spelling Bingo.* Taking the harder words from the basic Dolch list, the teacher had the students make cardboard bingo cards. Several sets of these cards were made. At first the student winning the bingo games had merely to read off the words. Later the student had to spell the words in order to win. Of all the games used, this one was the most popular, and it is believed that sight recognition in particular increased a good deal.¹

(2) *Pronouncing Baseball.* On days when the students read orally, the teacher checked words each missed in his personal copy of the material used. Then once a week these were all placed on the blackboard and the students chose sides in the form of two baseball teams. When a student read correctly a hit was scored. A mistake was declared an out. Before the start of the game, some basic suggestions for attacking words were read with examples provided by the teacher.

The overwhelming majority of the students enjoyed this game, though again the three or four lowest readers expressed aversion for it. They were given alternate chances of being scorekeeper and umpire.

(3) *Earl's Game.* This game was actually devised by one of the students and consequently was named after him. In preparation, the class studied one page of Dolch's 200 most com-

monly used words. Then they took turns at the board trying to stump each other with words. Although this game is primarily a spelling help, it also increases sight recognition for the poorer readers not taking too active a part in the game.

(4) *General Topics.* In this game each student is given a general topic such as vegetables, countries, household furnishings, or types of transportation. The student in turn tries to write down as many words in this category as possible, and the student with the longest list wins. This popular game was played about once a month with the roving teacher helping students with spelling.¹

(5) *Pick Out the Words That Belong.* Here again the main object is to improve sight recognition. Students are given words in groups of fours on the board, such as look, ping, peer, stare. They write down the three words that are alike, and in the process of correcting, they read the correct words aloud.

(6) *Root Word List.* Students are given such root words as cover, turn, view, pair, body, content, and prove. They are expected to build as many words as possible from each word. This is particularly good in putting across the idea that words can be broken down into various parts to make recognition and pronunciation easier.

(7) *Prefix and Suffix Game.* Pupils are given a list of prefixes such as pre, ante, de, ex, and/or suffixes such as ment, ly, er, ious, and ed, and asked to put as many words with each of these as possible. It is hoped that in working with prefixes and suffixes the student will readily recognize them in future reading. Both this and the previous game were well-received.

(8) *Jumbled Sentences and Spellagrams.* To increase the student's ability to work with words in general, from time to time the group received sentences containing social studies material in which the words were out of order

¹Albert Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability*, (Longmans Green, 1953), p. 323.

¹Albert Harris, *How to Increase Reading Ability*, (Longmans Green, 1953) p. 364.

approximately half an hour, although many of the students would have liked to have them every day.

There were two more positive results of this free reading program. While the students were reading, the teacher was able to help the slowest readers on an individual basis at a table placed in the back of the room where basic word lists, and adult interest level *Readers Digests* were used. In addition to this, this time was also used as a counseling and guidance period for those having personal problems and also as a time for discussing present reading work with other persons in the class.

Of all the techniques used, this combination of creative writing and free reading period, so much of it being on an individualized basis, was felt by the teacher to be a major factor in

was also used, primarily as a check to see if the other processes being used were bringing results.

Evaluation

At the end of April, 1958, Form N of the Stanford Achievement Test was given. In this same group of twenty-six pupils the median reading score was 6.3. The highest reading score was 9.0, and the lowest was 4.7. The average gains for the year were 1.3. Below are listed the individual students with their reading levels in September, their reading level in April, and each person's IQ. Gains for the year are listed in the column to the far right.

From these results it can be concluded that the Roosevelt Junior High seventh grade reading program was a success in terms of increas-

| Student | IQ | September '57 | April '58 | Gain |
|---------|-----|---------------|-----------|------|
| A | 94 | 4.0 | 4.9 | .9 |
| B | 77 | 4.5 | 5.9 | 1.4 |
| C | 79 | 4.5 | 5.7 | 1.2 |
| D | 96 | 6.3 | 7.6 | 1.3 |
| E | 87 | 4.4 | 4.7 | .3 |
| F | 95 | 6.1 | 6.1 | .0 |
| G | 98 | 5.4 | 6.1 | .7 |
| H | 74 | 3.9 | — | — |
| I | 88 | 4.7 | 7.1 | 2.4 |
| J | 93 | 5.5 | 8.1 | 2.6 |
| K | 94 | 6.3 | 8.3 | 2.0 |
| L | 90 | — | 6.2 | — |
| M | 98 | 5.6 | 7.0 | 1.4 |
| N | 102 | 5.6 | 7.4 | 1.8 |
| O | 105 | 6.0 | 7.6 | 1.6 |
| P | 88 | 5.3 | 5.7 | .4 |
| Q | 100 | 4.9 | 6.5 | 1.6 |
| R | 89 | 5.9 | 6.1 | .2 |
| S | 92 | 5.6 | 6.5 | .9 |
| T | 95 | 4.1 | 6.1 | 2.0 |
| U | 96 | 4.6 | 5.7 | 1.1 |
| V | 94 | 5.3 | 7.3 | 2.0 |
| W | 98 | 4.7 | 9.0 | 4.3 |
| X | 97 | 5.9 | 6.0 | .1 |
| Y | 100 | 5.0 | 7.7 | 2.7 |
| Z | 91 | 5.0 | 5.9 | .9 |

accounting for student reading ability increases. The traditional method of reading social studies and English stories silently and then aloud

ing reading ability, and that it should be continued in the future.

Over and above these objective gains there

is more involved. Many of these same students, were they placed in average or above average groups, would have had little incentive because of strong competition and its resulting feelings of inferiority. Instead, homogeneous grouping has encouraged almost all students to work up to capacity. For the first time in their lives these students had a feeling of accomplishment, a feeling of getting recognition. Their enthusiasm and satisfaction was as rewarding for their teacher as it was for the pupils themselves.

Appendix

Below are a list of materials that this teacher did not use with the remedial classes at Roosevelt Junior High, but which have been used with good success at the Rockford College Reading Clinic.

(1) *The Tachistoscope.* (Keystone View Co., Meadville, Pennsylvania.) This machine flashes words or phrases on a screen at a speed-rate of from one-fifth a second to one-two-hundredth of a second. Its purpose is to increase eyespan and quick recognition. It is to be used as a companionpiece to the EDL Controlled Reader mentioned before, in order to speed up the student's reading abilities.

(2) *The SRA Reading Laboratory Kits.* (Science Research Associates, 57 Grand Avenue, Chicago, Illinois) These kits are divided into stories, grades 4-12, with 15 stories for each grade level. In using these kits a student is started one or two years below his tested grade level. When he can demonstrate proficiency by answering questions and doing word attack exercises at the end of the stories, he moves on to the next grade level. There are some very obvious advantages to using such a kit—it makes

provision for individual differences within any junior high classroom while at the same time providing all with some very interesting reading.

(3) *Workbooks.* Although the teacher should not overwork this phase of the teaching of reading process, as it may be deadly to group morale, there are several workbooks which may be used successfully. *Basic Reading Skills, Junior High*, Scott Foresman and Co., Chicago, Illinois, contains many worthwhile exercises dealing with word structure analysis as well as phonic principles. *Phonics We Use, levels D & E*, Meighen and Pratt, Lyons, Chicago, Ill., are good for the reason indicated in the title. A third good book is *Remedial Reading Drills*, Hegge and Kirk, Wahr Co., Ann Arbor, Michigan.

(4) *SRA Accelerator.* (Science Research Associates, 57 Grand Ave., Chicago, Illinois. This is a reading stand equipped with an electrically controlled shutter device that covers successive lines of type in books containing short articles of graduated reading difficulty. The shutter can be regulated to reading speeds ranging from 90 to approximately 1000 words per minute. The value of this machine is that each individual uses a machine and can read at his own rate of speed. Tests are found at the end of each selection to determine the comprehension level of the student too.

(5) *Reading for Meaning, Books 6,7, &8.* (Guiler and Coleman, J. B. Lippincott, Chicago, Illinois.) These are books of short reading selections followed by questions concerning the story, vocabulary definitions, true-false exercises, and outlining devices. Again this is another kind of workbook that is particularly helpful in the field of comprehension.

How Many Words Does a First-Grade Child Know?

A survey of the literature on estimated size of understanding vocabulary of first-grade children for the past sixty years has revealed definite disparity among the conclusions of teachers, educators, research specialists, and the results of actual testing. Although many studies are available on vocabulary estimates, little research appears to have been completed on the first-grade level. The reason for this may be due to the difficulty of administering a suitable test and the time factor involved. Although there is a large variety of experimental information on measurement of vocabulary, it apparently has not produced significant changes regarding language skills (10).

In early estimates of the size of vocabulary reported by Kirkpatrick (5), Terman and Childs (14), Brandenburg (1), and Neher (7), an abridged dictionary was used and representative samples were taken from these dictionaries for the vocabulary tests. It apparently had not occurred to researchers at that time that they were necessarily limiting the size of individual vocabularies based upon tests constructed from such samples. It was not until many years later that this fallacy was identified by Seashore and Eckerson, who with Mary K. Smith have concluded it is the size of the dictionary employed which is the deciding factor in estimated vocabulary size rather than the size of the sampling of words (13). A pocket-size dictionary cannot give a person the opportunity of demonstrating all of the words he knows.

Dolch (3) and Madora E. Smith (11) in previous studies had also utilized oral and written compositions completed by children, in addition to recordings of children's spoken responses and conversations when they employed

combined word lists in their sampling methods. This method appears to limit the field of association within the individual's mind. No matter how many subject areas employed, one cannot possibly hope to cover completely an individual's experiences. If children are allowed to choose their own subjects, their choice will probably be controlled by numerous limiting factors.

Research seems to agree that the larger number of words in a dictionary, the greater the opportunity for each individual to show his knowledge of words; hence, the larger will be individual vocabulary estimates (6).

If one is unwilling to give an individual the opportunity to show all of the words that he knows, by taking one's sample from an abridged dictionary, it would appear impossible to estimate the true size of any individual's vocabulary.

Seashore (9), in a survey of studies on vocabulary measurement, listed five major sources of misinformation regarding the estimate of individual vocabularies which needed to be disposed of before accurate vocabulary estimates can be secured. These are:

1. Counting words in conversations of individuals.
2. Counting total number of different words that were used by the great writers; then estimating that other individuals have smaller vocabularies.
3. Employing an abridged dictionary for sampling purposes.
4. Utilizing the findings on frequency word lists.
5. Findings of word counts of the speech of very young children gathered both in the home and classroom over a period of time.

Mr. Shibles is an instructor in the Farmington (Maine) State Teachers College.

In early research summarized by Doran (4) in 1907, it appeared that estimates of vocabulary sizes were very low. It is apparent, however, that the methodology employed had been an important factor in low vocabulary estimates. Doran reported that Canton in 1897 stated that a child of six years, Grade I, of average intelligence may safely be credited with a knowledge of two thousand words. Since this figure or estimate was based upon a careful study of only one individual in the first grade, it would appear that the estimate is of little practical value.

Terman and Childs (14) reported in 1912 that experiments of Kirkpatrick and Whipple showed that it was possible to ascertain the size of a child's vocabulary by means of a hundred words. Terman and Childs appeared to feel that a vocabulary test to be used with children, particularly for measuring intelligence, should be based upon the more common words or the more common concepts that are in use.

Terman and Childs employed in their study the smallest dictionary used in early vocabulary studies—the eighteen-thousand word Laird and Lee's *Vest Pocket Dictionary*—essentially to measure intelligence. All of the vocabulary tests were given individually. From the results of this testing, Terman and Childs estimated the median size of vocabulary of the first-grade pupil, six years old, to be twenty-five hundred words.

Madorah Smith (11) in 1926 studied the extent of vocabulary in young children. The test devised for her study resulted from the selection of every twentieth word in the Thorndike list of ten thousand most common words in the English language. The actual selection was made by taking the first and twenty-first word in each of the two columns of the 126 pages of the main list and discarding at random the four words in excess of the five hundred needed. This sampling was analyzed with published vocabularies of seventy-seven chil-

dren at various ages from eighteen months to six years, which resulted in the basic list. As the result of the testing, the average number of words in the vocabulary of nine first-grade pupils was 2,562 words.

Dolch (3) reported in 1936 in his attempt to devise a vocabulary test that he utilized a combined word list in his work with first-grade children. This particular list resulted from a combination of Thorndike's twenty thousand word list, Horn's ten thousand word list, nine thousand words from the Free Association Study, as well as words from eight other investigations. Dolch felt that such a list would certainly include all the words that a child could possibly come in contact with. Before the test was given, these words were classified into many groups of different interest areas. An attempt was made to neutralize the many factors pertaining to sampling.

The results of the testing showed a first-grade vocabulary to be 2,703 words. Dolch stated that this estimate was not the result of the most frequently used words by some children, but rather 2,703 words determined by the following principles: (1) words known rather than used; (2) words resulting from a survey of experiences rather than a sampling of it; (3) words with a specified degree of meaning; and (4) words known to a definite percentage and number of children.

In 1941 Mary K. Smith (11) attempted to measure the individual differences in total English vocabulary through the use of the Seashore-Eckerson *English Recognition Vocabulary Test*, derived from a sampling of the Funk and Wagnalls *New Standard Dictionary of the English Language*, 1937 edition. She tested children in Grade I through Grade XII.

The total number of children tested on the first-grade level was forty-four, and the results of testing indicated an average total vocabulary on the first-grade level to be 23,700 words. This is a substantially higher estimate for first-grade children as compared to those re-

ported by Madorah Smith (11) and Dolch (3). This study employed an unabridged dictionary in testing the size of vocabulary of children in Grade I. Mary Smith's figures should not be considered as national norms since the results were derived from only three schools and different children were tested in each grade.

Schulman (8) and Colvin (2) have recently utilized the same procedures as those utilized by Mary K. Smith and have produced results so close to hers as to substantiate her findings. The implications that the results of her work can have upon teaching language arts in present-day classrooms may be of unusual practical importance.

There seems to be very little controversy over the English understanding vocabulary size of the bilingual child. This is due probably to the fact that there have been so few attempts to measure vocabularies of bilingual children.

Madorah Smith (12) reported in 1949 the study of vocabularies of thirty bilingual children of Chinese ancestry. The Smith test was given in both English and Chinese. When the bilingual children were grouped at four age levels, the average vocabularies were substantially below the English vocabularies of the monoglots.

The Present Study

To facilitate study of the problem, it was necessary to: (1) select schools in which it would be possible to carry on the study; (2) select a suitable test to measure understanding vocabulary; (3) select a reliable measuring instrument of intelligence; and (4) administer the tests to determine vocabulary estimates and intelligence quotients.

One hundred eighty-three bilingual and monolingual children were chosen from seven schools in Maine communities which appeared to have similar socio-economic levels. No attempt was made to secure a representative or random sample of first-grade children in Maine. Contact was made with the elementary super-

visor in each school system concerning the policy of testing in each school system. Prior to administering the vocabulary and intelligence tests, the investigator visited each classroom to meet the children.

It was decided to utilize the *English Recognition Vocabulary Test* by Seashore and Eckerson, which was designed, primarily, to measure individual differences in the total absolute English vocabulary. In selecting the vocabulary test, it was necessary to utilize one that could be employed on the first-grade level; one that would allow the testee to show all that he knew about words in the tests; and one that would test understanding vocabulary rather than reading and writing. The *California Test of Mental Maturity*, employed as an instrument for the measurement of intelligence, was concomitantly administered to first-grade pupils in the schools.

The Seashore-Eckerson *English Recognition Vocabulary Test* was given to one hundred eighty-three bilingual and monolingual pupils in elementary schools in Maine. This particular test is composed of three parts. The first part contains 173 multiple choice items made up of general basic terms, arranged in approximate order of difficulty. The second part contains proper names, geographical locations, and rare words. The third part contains forty-six terms which are variations in parts of speech. In parts two and three, the testee verbally gives the definitions of the words. In part one the testee elects one of four choices.

Since an effort was made to standardize procedures among the different schools, it was necessary to follow the manual closely. Pupils in Grade I were tested only on words specified in the manual in all three parts of the test.

In each instance the examiner was introduced to the children. The examiner explained the purpose of the test and assured the children that this test would not affect their school grades. Since first-grade children were being employed, it was necessary to test orally and

individually. Arrangements were made with the classroom teacher for individual children to come to the testing room one at a time. Each test took on the average thirty-five minutes to administer. After each pupil arrived in the testing room, an effort was made to make him feel at ease, by talking informally with him. This was an interview-type situation. An effort was made to develop good working relationships with the child, by arousing his interest and confidence in the task at hand, and giving him a feeling of ease in this testing situation. Generally, children in the first grade enjoyed the test.

The children were told that the test was used for the children in all grades, and that the words were easier at first, gradually growing harder. They were encouraged to guess on the words, if they so desired. The examiner encouraged a meaning from the child no matter how vague or uncertain his expression of that particular meaning might be. An effort was made by the examiner to see that the child did his best work. Where possible, an effort was made to elicit a meaning for each word; however, the examiner realized the necessity of accepting a failure to identify a word on the part of the child. The child was allowed to rest during the test, if he appeared tired. He was not told whether or not his responses were correct. Praise was given with discretion.

Since the examiner was interested in noting whether or not the words were listed according to difficulty, the testee was carried through all the suggested items in Part I, II, and III of the *English Recognition Vocabulary Test*.

Since the first-grade child has a short memory span, it was necessary to include the word being tested with each multiple choice.

The examiner followed the procedure in the administration of the test almost identical to that used by Mary K. Smith as described in her report (13).

The median I. Q.'s of the seven schools ranged from 82.0 to 120.5; the standard devi-

ation of I. Q.'s of the seven class groups tested ranged from 11.35 to 19.95. The median I. Q. of the scores of the five monolingual class groups tested was 109.6, which is substantially above the national norms of 100. The median I. Q. scores of the five monolingual class groups ranged from 2.5 to 20.5 above the score assigned as a national norm. The median I. Q. of the scores of the two bilingual class groups tested was 86.6, which is substantially lower than the national norm of 100. The median I. Q. scores of the two bilingual class groups tested ranged from 11.1 to 18.0 points below the score assigned as the national norm.

The manual was followed closely in scoring the Seashore-Eckerson *English Recognition Vocabulary Test*. The mean basic, derived, and total understanding vocabulary of the scores for the seven schools were obtained. Since there are no national norms available on understanding vocabulary of first-grade children, it was necessary to make comparisons with tentative norms only.

Tentative norms derived from the results of testing completed by Mary K. Smith indicate that the first-grade child has an average basic vocabulary of 16,900 words; derived, 7,100 words and total, 24,000 words (9).

The scores derived from the results of testing in this study indicate that the mean basic vocabulary of the five class groups of monolingual children tested with a median I. Q. of 109.6 to be 18,924 words; derived, 7,438; and total, 26,363 words; scores derived from results of testing indicate that the mean basic vocabulary of the two class groups of bilingual children tested with a median I. Q. of 86.6 to be 12,167 words; derived, 5,680 words; and total, 17,847 words. The median I. Q. and the total understanding vocabulary score of the bilingual group are substantially lower than the median I. Q. and total understanding vocabulary score of the monolingual group. The accompanying table indicates the "average number of words known by one hundred thirty-

seven monolingual first-grade children tested, along with the results reported by Mary Smith for forty-four monolingual pupils" on the same level.

| Group | Size of Vocabulary | | |
|------------------------|--------------------|---------------|-------------|
| | Basic Words | Derived Terms | Total Words |
| Shible's First Graders | 18,924 | 7,438 | 26,363 |
| Smith's First Graders | 16,900 | 7,100 | 24,000 |

Little difference can be noted between the number of basic words and derived terms known between the two groups.

There appeared to be a fairly steady growth in vocabulary with measured intelligence. Forty-six of the 183 first-grade children tested were bilingual. It was decided at the beginning of the study to compare the language performance of the monolingual and bilingual children on both the intelligence and vocabulary tests. After the data were gathered, it was discovered that it would be impossible to make the comparison because the intelligence quotients and the intelligence quotient range were so drastically different between the two groups.

Serious question has arisen as to the suitability of the *California Test of Mental Maturity* and the *Seashore-Eckerson English Recognition Vocabulary Test* in obtaining intelligence quotients and total understanding vocabulary estimates of these bilingual first-grade children. Since these children spoke little or no English upon entering school, and since it would appear that their facility with the English language would be somewhat limited, the investigator has raised questions concerning the validity of language performance of these children on the intelligence and vocabulary tests.

The investigator suspected that the low intelligence quotients of the bilingual children are a result of the inability of these children to undertake an intelligence test which has been designed, basically, for monolingual children.

However, if these data are valid, it would appear that the bilingual child is not sufficiently advanced in the English language to receive the same instruction on the first-grade level as is the average monolingual child.

Conclusions

1. First-grade children apparently have a much larger understanding vocabulary than has been previously estimated.
2. The utilization of an unabridged dictionary as a basis of word sampling has resulted in substantially greater understanding vocabulary estimates over the abridged dictionary and word lists.
3. The size of the understanding vocabulary of first-grade children appears to have a fairly steady growth with measured intelligence.
4. Test results indicate that first-grade children who come from a bilingual background have a somewhat smaller understanding vocabulary estimate from those children who come from a monolingual background.
5. As a result of this study, it would appear that many educators are underestimating the size of total understanding vocabulary of first-grade children.
6. Data derived as a result of this study substantiate the general size of first-grade children's understanding vocabulary as estimated by Mary K. Smith in 1941.
7. It appears that the bilingual child is not sufficiently advanced in the English language to receive the same instruction on the first-grade level as the average monolingual child.
8. It would seem unwise to start any but children of superior linguistic ability with a second language unnecessarily during the pre-school years.

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E. ELONA SOCHOR

The Nature of Critical Reading

For the past ten years, the term "critical reading" has been appearing with growing frequency in educational literature. This phrase refers to something; words always do. What does "critical reading" represent? What is its nature?

Current Definitions of Critical Reading

The term "critical reading" is used by authorities in three ways: (1) as a major heading under "comprehension" with one or two other headings of relatively equivalent value, each heading including a number of stated or implied skills (10, 14, 63), (2) as higher-level comprehension abilities in general (32, 40, 43, 50), or (3) as a rather specific comprehension ability (21). Regardless of how the term is used, it invariably represents reading comprehension that involves (1) the facts as presented in the selection and (2) the use of higher-level mental processes.

Thus, reading authorities who use the term critical reading do not necessarily agree on what it includes. On the other hand, there are those who use other labels for what seems equivalent to critical reading: "creative reading"

(70, 75), "analytical reading" (97), and "critical evaluation" (63, 85), all referring to major headings under comprehension. "Study or work type reading" frequently includes analytical and evaluative as well as organizational abilities such as getting the main idea, relating details, and coordination (32, 62, 63, 85). Some writers prefer to list comprehension abilities of different types with no differentiation between higher and lower-level abilities (16, 21, 32, 37, 40, 50, 63, 80, 85, 95).

Much of the variability in what constitutes "critical reading" is due to insufficient research evidence on the reading abilities themselves and on basic and related factors which might contribute. Research workers have been unable to clarify sufficiently the nature, independence, or difficulty levels of comprehension abilities in reading. Consequently, those concerned with reading abilities resort to logic for a definition of critical reading. Even though it produces inconsistency, the current dependence on logical analysis of these abilities is a pragmatic one;

Dr. Sochor is Director of the Reading Clinic at Temple University, Philadelphia.

the need for comprehension beyond what is explicitly stated becomes more obvious daily.

There is complete agreement on the importance and basic nature of "getting the facts" as presented in the material. Opinions seem to vary, however, as to the school-level at which this ability should be initiated and where in the school program the ability is best developed, *i. e.*, some feel subject matter areas or "every-day living situations" provide better opportunities.

Such variability is even more pronounced with critical reading. Those authorities that discuss thinking abilities in relation to reading stress the need to lay the foundation for understanding what is read, not only in terms of facts, but also in terms of evaluating, organizing and concluding from facts, in readiness for beginning reading. They recommend emphasis on reading for meaning as soon as reading begins and in all activities involving reading (10, 70). Research evidence that five-and six-year olds can use all thinking abilities support their stand.

As with critical interpretation, various terms in the literature refer to grasping "what is stated": "literal reading" (70), "cursory or observational reading" (97), "assimilative reading" (10, 97), "understanding details" (63). Although the terms are not necessarily synonymous in how much understanding they include, they are used to differentiate between (1) grasping what is presented and (2) going beyond what is stated, or critical reading.

Complexity of Reading Comprehension

I

Research workers, beginning with Thorndike in 1917 (82), have unquestionably established the complexity of reading comprehension. Yet to be determined are how many abilities and skills are involved and specific information on their nature and development. Studies using the correlational technique have yielded helpful but limited information. Studies based on factor analysis have indicated what

appear to be general language and thinking factors.

Davis (26), Langsam (56), and Hall and Robinson (42) all conducted factor analysis studies of reading comprehension with college students. Anderson (2) used secondary level students; and Gans (36) and Mazurkiewicz (61), intermediate grade pupils.

Attempting to combine the factors reported in these studies is challenging, the limitations of language and statistical figures being what they are. Likewise intriguing are (1) factors that appear to be present but elude identification (36, 42) and (2) the attitude of comprehension accuracy (42). Some of the identified factors are very general in nature: reading comprehension (36), reasoning (61) and intelligence (2); others are more specific. If the factors are interpreted and grouped, three seem to emerge.

A "word factor," dealing primarily with individual word forms and their meanings appears to be one (2, 26, 42, 56). This factor would operate most obviously in the typical vocabulary test.

A second might be a "verbal factor" which contributes to the ability to see interrelationships among ideas represented by words in context but which would not involve too much abstract reasoning. Langsman reported such a factor separate from a word factor and reasoning (56). It could include Davis' ability to grasp explicit statements but not the implicit ones, the ability to get detailed statements and possibly the ability to follow the organization of a passage (26). Langsman's factor of noting details (56) and Mazur's verbal comprehension (61) would also fall here. Hall and Robinson's factor of rate, when considered in light of their other factors, might be classified under this factor (42) as well as Gans' delayed recall factor (36). Such a factor would be substantiated by the fact that even the simplest literal interpretation involves more than isolated word meanings.

The third factor, "abstract reasoning," appears in all the studies. Davis identified abstract reasoning as such as well as main idea synthesis (26). Hall and Robinson found an inductive factor (42), Mazurkiewicz reported deductive thinking and problem solving (61); Gans, a selection-rejection factor (36); and Anderson, an analysis-synthesis factor (2). Langsam's factor of seeing relationships might also be included.

The above three groupings of factors in reading comprehension are hypothesized on what is admittedly insufficient evidence. On the other hand, language, meaning, and thinking continua seem to operate together among the factors. Language (words and meanings) assumes a proportionately greater role in the "word factor," but some thinking occurs. In the third factor, the language (words in context, style of writing, punctuation, typographical aids, etc.) still supplies direction to and influences the thinking, but the thinking may go far beyond the meanings of the individual or groups of printed symbols. Language factors vary from the very familiar to the completely unfamiliar to the reader. Meanings vary from the specifically concrete to the most abstract concept (as used by the writer), from the already known to the unknown for the reader, and from possible to impossible to reconstruct because of the presence or absence of appropriate experiences in the reader. The thinking necessary for comprehension would vary from the simple to the complex, depending on the first two factors, the reader, his ability to use the thinking processes needed, and his purpose for reading. The three continua operate in an interrelated manner at all times in any given reader, each influencing the others in a constantly changing pattern.

What would critical reading include in terms of the language, the meanings, the thinking processes, and the reader? Or even in terms of the word, verbal, or abstract reasoning factors? Only further research can supply the an-

swers.

II

The factor analysis studies discussed above attempted to identify basic factors in reading comprehension that would influence or contribute to specific skills and abilities. The results indicated the complexity of the reading process.

A related problem is research evidence on the differentiation between literal (understanding what is stated explicitly) and critical reading. A number of studies reveal that literal reading and evaluating, inferring from or applying facts, though related positively, are not the same (9, 28, 36, 52, 57, 86). Studies (60, 79) investigating literal reading comprehension and a number of specific "critical reading" skills have also indicated that the relationship between literal and critical reading, though substantial, is not high enough to assume they are the same abilities. A comparison of correct responses further indicates differences in performance on the literal and critical parts of the test, with the former being substantially higher.

Literal and critical reading, as treated in these studies, do differ. Moreover, the first (understanding the facts) appears to be basic to (60, 61, 79) and probably an integral part of critical reading.

Thinking: A Basic Process

I

Thinking as an inherent part of reading was pointed out by Thorndike in 1917 when he stated, ". . . 'to read' means 'to think' . . ." (84, p. 114). After analyzing subjectively the responses of elementary-school children in paragraph interpretation, he compared the thinking processes necessary to that of solving a problem in mathematics (83). In other words, he found evidence of typical problem-solving behavior in paragraph comprehension.

Horn likewise concluded that understanding what was read was similar to problem solving (51, p. 154) and that any understanding involved selection, evaluation, inference and

ing, autistic thinking, and creative thinking, all grouped under "imagination." Russell defines thinking as "a determined course of ideas (which may vary greatly in the extent to which it is determined), symbolic in character, initiated by a problem or task (or other environmental factors including the personal ones) and leading to a conclusion (or solution)" (71, pp. 4-5).

Russell discusses first what is used in thinking, the "materials of thinking," beginning with percepts which "grow out of sensations resulting from environmental stimuli." The percepts, together with mental "images" and memories from prior percepts, "develop into understandings and generalizations in the form of verbalized concepts" (71, pp. 65-66). He then discusses "processes in thinking" which occur as a product of needs and are not separate from the "materials." These processes differ "... in such ways as the amount of (goal) direction involved, the extent to which organization of materials is needed, and the type of final organization or conclusion that is reached" (71, p. 28). Of particular interest here is his use of the term "critical thinking," one of the thinking processes, which he reports "Usually . . . implies appraisal in terms of some norm, standard, or value" (71, p. 13) and which is, at times, described as a part of problem solving and of creative thinking, two other higher-level thinking processes. Critical thinking involves the inspection and comparison of facts, and it includes arriving at some conclusion. Of interest, too, are the inductive-deductive thinking processes which lead to the formation of concepts or the formulation of conclusions.

One other recent publication dealing essentially with thinking and the use of knowledge structures educational goals from the simple to the complex (13). The accumulation of all kinds of knowledge is recognized as basic; higher levels of functioning include manipulating, seeing relationships and applying known facts and generalizations in in-

creasingly more abstract and more complex ways, the simpler being incorporated in the more complex. Thus the structure is subdivided into (1) knowledge and (2) intellectual abilities and skills (listed in the order of increasing complexity).

These three sources dealing with thinking have a number of views in common. Vinache differs from the other two in that he does little specific ordering of processes or abilities.

All three agree that thinking utilizes what are commonly called "experiences," past and present; moreover, these experiences are related and organized into concepts and generalizations, and applied as needed. They see thinking as abstract or symbolic, i.e., dealing with objects and events not present in the immediate environment. All three include inductive and deductive thinking, evaluating, problem solving, and creative thinking. They accept the fact that thinking for everyday life draws on all thinking processes to constantly varying extents and in ever shifting combinations.

Other research workers dealing with the thinking processes agree that "thinking" refers to a complex group of abilities (31, 39), that the term is not synonymous with intelligence (30, 39, 54), that thinking is specific to the situation (27), and that many factors influence thinking and the development of the ability to think (15, 38, 58, 66, 67, 77). Furthermore, evidence of thinking as defined begins in infancy (71); the ability to generalize from meaningful and concrete experiences begins to be apparent by three years of age (41, 59, 89, 90); and the ability to reason and form concepts develops gradually with accumulated experiences, learning, and age (24, 48, 53, 55, 64, 87). Although the young child may have difficulty expressing himself (41, 44, 49, 59), his thinking is the same qualitatively as that of adults (44).

III

The term "critical thinking" appears at times in the literature as differentiated from

organization (51, p. 123). Although he did not refer to or discuss thinking directly, it is implicit in what he says.

The unanimous acceptance by educators of mental maturity as a contributing factor to readiness for beginning reading indicates recognition of thinking ability needed for reading (78). The use of mental age as a criterion of expectancy of achievement in reading at any level is another indication of such acceptance (10,43). That reading authorities are beginning to discuss the thinking processes as such (10, 70) and that one has recently published a text on children's thinking (71) point to what seems to be growing attention to this particular and crucial aspect of the reading process.

Research evidence supports the premise that reading is a thinking process. The relationships between reading performance and intelligence (8, 94), particularly when the latter is controlled (60, 79), and the ever-present factor of reasoning in reading comprehension discussed earlier are but two examples.

If reading comprehension involves thinking, then critical reading must involve thinking. To understand the nature of critical reading would necessitate the understanding of thinking in general and possibly of "critical thinking."

II

One of the first and most important premises which must be kept in mind constantly is that thinking takes place in an individual. At any particular time he is functioning from a total internal context, a dynamic, fluid and complex pattern of nervous system activity, conscious and unconscious. His thinking will be a product of and will be affected by the number and kinds of past experiences he has had; it will involve his particular organization of these experiences (concepts). His general level of maturation in all respects (physical, social-emotional, language, motor, etc.) and his physical status will have their influences. His feel-

ings, needs, and attitudes, varying from time to time (sometimes from moment to moment) and from topic to topic are inextricably interrelated with and affect what he thinks about and how he thinks.

Two recent publications have dealt with thinking, one concentrating on children and adolescents (71) and the other more general in nature (88). Although the approaches vary, the discussions are similar as well as complementary in a number of ways.

Vinache (88), in surveying the variety of human thought processes, emphasizes the "wholeness" of the individual. He points out (1) each process is in a dynamic relation to every other process (not limited to thinking) and (2) the importance of past experiences to thinking and their interrelatedness with all other aspects of human behavior. Russell (71), on the other hand, structures thinking primarily in terms of direction and organization, although he, too, recognizes personalizing factors. Direction varies ". . . from rather random association to specific channeling toward specific ends," organization moves from the relatively simple to an abstract level involving complex relationships (71, p. 18).

Both authors conclude that the term "thinking" has no clearly established meaning, ". . . in large part, perhaps, because the processes involved in it are so elusive and, apparently, incapable of direct observation" (88, p. 2). However, the two definitions formulated independently by these writers agree in essence.

Vinache defines thinking as mental activity, not predominantly perceptual, that is ". . . an interplay of response to outer, or realistic and inner, or imaginative . . . forces which occurs in relation to the mental context, or personalizing factors" (88, p. 358). "Reasoning," which includes logical thinking, concept formation, transfer, and problem solving, is more likely to be a product of outer (realistic) determinants. Inner determinants are more likely to prevail in imagery, imaginative think-

The conclusion is: a hierarchy of difficulty for thinking processes or within thinking processes has not been established. Such a structure has been identified for concepts and it may well be that the number of concepts which are or must be manipulated, their familiarity and abstractness, the state of the individual and the complexity of the situation requiring thinking produce increasing levels of difficulty and complexity rather than the thinking processes themselves.

V

There are several important implications for reading comprehension and its development that can be drawn from the available information on thinking. First and foremost, thinking refers to a complex group of mental processes which utilize experiences. Furthermore, thinking is basic to living. It becomes imperative, then, that varied experiences be provided and that all thinking abilities be fostered and developed at every school level and in many activities. In order to do this, one must begin with the learner and with what he has already acquired; this will vary in different situations. Until the reader-to-be has learned to think, he cannot read and comprehend.

Thinking abilities cannot be assumed to exist. Intelligence, knowledge of subject matter, language facility, age: none of these can be used for prediction. Specific attention must be given to both evaluation and development of thinking.

The research indicates that, other things being equal, five- and six-year-olds can use the thinking processes. Thus, they are ready to profit from guidance in developing better thinking abilities. Moreover, beginners in reading are ready to infer, evaluate, organize, and apply what is read.

Experiences, Concepts, and Language

Thus far in this paper, thinking has been stressed as one basic factor operating during reading. That one must have actual, direct experiences with which to think has already been

pointed out. Moreover, both experiences and thinking abilities need to be developed prior to their use in reading, a process which imposes additional responsibilities on the reader.

In the reading task, one specific type of situation involving thinking, not only must the reader have experiences and concepts on which to draw and with which to think but these must be appropriate, i.e., enable him to reconstruct what the author is saying or implying. If the reader can build up a total structure of experiences with interrelationships and organization similar to the author's, he can interpret more accurately the author's presentation.

Reading has long been recognized as a "taking to" process and there is much evidence on the extreme importance of a background of experiences of innumerable kinds which are related, organized, and reorganized as needed (1, 4, 17, 23, 69, 74). Having experiences refers to "experiencing": anything an individual receives through his senses, his emotional reactions to these percepts, his use of them in thinking or any other activity, become a part of his experiential background.

Experiences, when related in some way, volitionally or otherwise, result in concepts. Any concept exists only in the nervous system of an individual; it may or may not be associated with a verbal symbol. Moreover, since concepts are formed under varying conditions (individual and situational) by everyone, a concept is personal; no two people will have identical concepts of any object, event, situation, or generalization. The more abstract (i.e., more inclusive and further removed from the concrete) the concept is, the more this becomes true. The concepts of "honesty" and "democracy" are examples.

Research evidence on concepts is accumulating (19, 71, 88). Development begins in pre-school years (44, 89) with direct experiences (46, 47, 65). For any given concept, the development moves in a gradual manner (27, 41) from concrete and simple to abstract

thinking in general. As stated before, Russell uses the term to denote one of the more complex thinking processes which involves high-level evaluation; Betts (11) appears to agree. The Taxonomy places evaluation at the top of its hierarchy. Some research studies, by virtue of the abilities they incorporate, draw on a broader use of the term (39, 60, 61, 79). The studies investigating inferring (9, 86), judging relevancy (36), applying facts (52), concept formation (59, 92), reasoning (48, 64) and generalizing (24, 90) are also often quoted as dealing with "higher-level" thought processes, or critical thinking.

As with "thinking" in general, "critical thinking" has been found to be relatively independent of general intelligence and knowledge of subject matter (20, 35, 39, 71, p. 292). Instruction in these abilities does not appear to change the relationship (35), although at least some critical thinking abilities can be improved by instructional guidance (3, 12, 22, 34, 39, 54, 72, 96). Moreover, the ability to do critical thinking in its broadest sense (evaluating, generalizing, problem solving, etc.) is present by the time the child enters school.

Although "critical thinking," when used, designates one segment of "thinking" in general, the nature and number of thinking processes included varies infinitely. Research evidence to delineate it clearly is lacking. Again its definition becomes one that is a result of (1) logic or (2) pragmatic considerations in order to stress the need for thinking that is more complex in contrast with the superficial.

IV

One of the questions commonly asked about thinking refers to a hierachal order of processes to be used in developing them with students. Vinache makes no attempt to do this systematically; Russell does, pointing out his six types of thinking differ in terms of complexity. Welch in one of his studies concludes that going from simple to complex problem solving

necessitates the use of more mental processes simultaneously and consecutively and with greater efficiency; however, he reported it was impossible to determine which mental processes were functioning at any given moment (91).

What originally appeared to be a child's inability to generalize or solve problems (a possible indication of a hierarchy) now appears to be due to the lack of experience; within the limitations of his experiences a child thinks in the manner an adult does (44). Chronological age and number of years in school for a child appear to be very important in this respect (27, pp. 10-11) and both of these have a direct bearing on accumulation of experiences. Yet there is evidence that primary level children do not appear to be ready to deal with much more than is in their immediate environments even with instruction and with the ability to use all the thinking processes (70, p. 59).

There is substantial research evidence that concepts (an end product) vary in difficulty (13, 71, 88). Those closer to the object-level are acquired earlier and are basic to those more abstract. There is no evidence, however, that the abstracting and generalizing processes themselves vary.

Thus, proposed hierarchies for thinking abilities, to date, are primarily the product of logical thinking rather than research. If we could study the emergence and development of thinking processes in the very young child, as has been done for language development, we might find some answers to this question of relative difficulty. Unfortunately for investigations on thinking, language is more directly observable. General physiological maturation could be basic to dealing with any thinking process at a particular point in growth as it seems to be in vision and motor skills and as it has been suggested by Welch in regard to thinking (89). Hereditary, environmental, and personality factors might affect such levels for any individual.

is relevant from one's experiences and rejecting what is irrelevant (evaluation) is a constant process in reading to "get the facts." Locating antecedents, interpreting punctuation or figurative language, determining sequence (particularly if inverted), or analyzing an unknown word may produce situations that call for problem solving. Deciding at which level of abstraction an author's concept falls or reorganizing personal experiences to reconstruct a writer's concept will involve inductive and deductive processes, evaluation and arriving at a conclusion. Understanding one sentence in a particular context may call for thinking of the most complex order, depending on the reader and the sentence.

Logically, reconstructing the facts represented by words is a relatively easy task compared to reading tasks that require more than understanding what is stated explicitly. However, the nature and complexity of the "facts" together with their language representations (language - experience relationships) vary from author to author, and may even vary from one piece of printed material to another by the same author. Familiarity with the facts as a result of (1) experiences and (2) the organization of these experiences in relation to the author's language will vary from reader to reader and from material to material with the same reader. All of these might necessitate more complex thinking; yet for any one reader with a given selection, getting the facts will be relatively easier than "reading between lines" or using the ideas to solve a problem.

Thus, for all practical purposes, literal and critical reading cannot be differentiated either on the basis of thinking processes or the language-experience relationships. Both will vary with the materials and the reader. Attempting to combine the two in some pattern for differentiation does not appear possible at the present time.

The differentiation can be made on the basis of the reader's purpose for reading, i.e., his

need to understand what is stated (literal reading) as contrasted with his need to deal with the facts in some way (critical reading). In order to accomplish his goal, he must adjust to the nature of the facts and the language, and he must use whatever thinking processes he finds necessary. To the extent that he is helped to accumulate the necessary experiences and to acquire all the thinking and language abilities needed, to that extent he will be a successful reader.

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and complex levels, depending on the number and kinds of experiences (18, 45, 68, 91, 93). Learners enter schools with concepts of many kinds developed to varying degrees of abstractness. One of the important responsibilities of a teacher at any school level is to further the growth of clear and accurate concepts which can then be used in reading or any other activity.

Reading is a communication process using printed symbols. Since reading entails language, it must also be considered in terms of its nature and its development.

The prevalence of verbalism, or the use of language which does not refer to experiences and concepts, has been pointed out and discussed repeatedly (17, pp. 7-14, 25, 29, 51, 73). One reason for such widespread verbalism is the confusion that has existed between the language symbol and the internal cognitive system it represents. The concrete object, the concept, the conclusion, or thinking processes used are not language but are referred to through the use of language labels. Language is symbolic and refers to experiences; without the latter, language is meaningless. Thus, language ability, such as pronouncing the words in reading, cannot be used as proof that meaning exists in the individual. The fact that it has been so interpreted has helped to produce a wide-spread problem. Overemphasis on the use of language in evaluating understanding and learning has also contributed. As the meanings become more abstract, the problem becomes greater. Verbalism interferes with literal interpretation; critical interpretation by its nature breaks down further.

Language development (69, 78) as well as the interdependences and the interrelationships among language abilities have received much attention in the literature (4, 5, 6, 11). The reader will recall that there was confusion about pre-schoolers' ability to think because of their inability to express themselves verbally; the thinking was present, the language development was not. Sufficient language facility is a pre-

requisite for reading. However, if the ability to interpret printed language literally is present, critical reading can and should be fostered.

Literal and Critical Reading

Earlier in this paper, two premises were developed. First, reading is thinking with experiences and concepts in relation to printed language. Second, literal and critical reading are not synonymous.

The question arises: Is thinking related in any particular manner to literal reading as contrasted with critical reading? The latter has been hypothesized as necessitating "higher-level" mental processes, at times called "critical thinking." Is the differentiation between the two categories of reading the level or nature of thinking necessitated?

In the discussion of thinking, it was concluded that, with the available research knowledge on thinking, it is not possible to structure a hierarchy of thinking processes. If such a structure exists, it has yet to be identified.

Is the reading task of such a nature that it demands particular thinking processes in a relatively pure form, like inductive thinking? There is no evidence to support such a conclusion.

The reading task involves first and foremost the reconstruction of the author's ideas (goal-directed thinking). The reader then may go beyond what the author states; he may apply the ideas to some problem or he may evaluate authenticity, to mention two possibilities. The thinking processes necessary to understand what one author says (literal reading) may be far more complex than the evaluation of what another author states (critical reading). If after difficult literal interpretation the reader must proceed to what is known as critical reading, the situation becomes even more complex.

Research indicates that literal reading involves at least some aspects of higher-level thinking. Problem-solving processes appear in the interpretation of a paragraph. Selecting what

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THE HELP - MIKE - READ CLUB

Mike came to me last fall with a terrific reading problem. I teach fifth graders, and Mike was reading on last half of second grade level. He was bright looking, with a very pleasing, out-going personality. Naturally, he was well liked by the people in the room. He had always gone to this same school from kindergarten on, and now in fifth grade he still couldn't read.

I talked to the helping teacher about Mike. He administered the Stanford-Binet Intelligence test, and his findings bore out my opinion that Mike was of average intelligence—99. He had had Mike in special reading classes for the last two years, but Mike didn't seem to grow very much in his ability to attack new words.

We decided to try having Mike read out loud for an hour or so each day. Needless to say, this could not be done in the classroom, and certainly with thirty others, I wouldn't have time to spend that much time with him. I talked to Mike, and asked him point blank how badly he wanted to learn to read, and if he wanted to learn badly enough to really work on it. He said he wanted to learn to read, but he just seemed unable to do it. I asked if he would like to have some of the boys and girls in the room help him. He was willing, and I suggested that we start a Help-Mike-Learn-to-Read Club, each helper to hear Mike read for fifteen minutes a day. He liked the idea, and so we talked it over with the boys and girls. They, too, liked

the idea, and so we decided to start with six people to work in fifteen-minute shifts in our conference room—away from the classroom so that Mike could read out loud.

Then came the problem of selecting books for Mike to read. He is very interested in science and choose *The Golden Book of Astronomy* to read. Before he had read two paragraphs he decided that it was too difficult, and so we went to the school librarian. She suggested a book on the *Sun, Moon, and Stars* which was much easier reading, and still was interesting to Mike. The first week he stuck to books on science and read four books from cover to cover, the first time in his life he had done that. After having read these books, the librarian began to advise him to read other types of books, and he has enjoyed reading them. To date he has been reading by himself for four weeks and has read eight books completely, from cover to cover. He has reported on two of them to the boys and girls in his class. He understands what he reads, and is improving in word attack. He adds to class discussions with information which he obtains from these books, and so the help is not all one-sided. Mike has helped the class as well as being helped by them.

Mrs. Clara A. Smith
Midland, Michigan

PAUL A. WITTY
AND
ROBERT A. SIZEMORE

Studies In Listening: II

Relative Values of Oral and Visual Presentation (Lectures, Movies, Examinations, and Advertising Materials)

This article is the second in a series on listening. The first included an overview of investigations made during the period 1892-1934. In addition, four more recent related studies were presented. Many of the early investigations were very simple in design and dealt with comparisons of small groups of pupils taught nonsense materials or relatively unrelated subject matter by visual and by auditory approaches. Despite their limitations, these studies showed that (a) listening is an effective way to learn certain types of materials; (b) listening, as compared with reading, seems more effective as a way of learning in early childhood, although its superiority is not consistently demonstrated even at this level; (c) listening seems less effective than reading as an adult way of learning certain materials, as in cases in which critical discrimination and analysis are involved (here again, only a trend is indicated since the results of experiments are inconsistent); (d) listening as a way of learning is sometimes reinforced by other avenues of learning; for example, in the simultaneous use of visual and kinaesthetic approaches. Once again, however, the data are inconclusive and sometimes contradictory; (e) a positive relationship is found in the ability of groups to learn through visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic approaches; (f) individual differences are great in all types of learning; (g) success in learning through any avenue depends to a considerable degree upon the nature of the task to be learned and the way the materials are tested; (h) success in learning through any one sensory approach seems

to depend to a considerable degree on the individual's experience in that type of learning.

This article will deal with the following additional aspects of listening: the effectiveness of lecture presentation as compared with reading; the value of oral presentations accompanying the seeing of movies, compared with reading the same stories of hearing them told; the relative merits of oral versus written examinations; and the relative effectiveness of oral versus visual presentation of advertising materials.

The Effectiveness of Lecture Presentations versus Reading

One area of early research in listening consisted of comparative studies of the effectiveness of listening to lectures versus reading.

In an attempt to determine whether a class learned more from a lecturer when he read from lecture notes or when he spoke from memory, Henry T. Moore (13) experimented in 1919 with students at the University of Minnesota. Identical material was presented by each of two procedures to two groups totaling 100 beginning psychology students. "The general intelligence of the two groups was approximately the same." Immediately after each presentation the students were asked "to write out in the completest detail" what they could remember. The total number of ideas correctly recorded was used as scores. In a preliminary test the subjects

were aware that the material concerned a special test, and attended with an interest in

Dr. Witty is Professor of Education at Northwestern University. Mr. Sizemore is at the University of Toledo.

competition for score. The score for the two groups shows no significant difference . . . Evidently when the audience is attending competitively the matter of reading or speaking becomes of small importance. (13, p. 468)

A further experiment in which the students were unaware of the experiment brought about different results.

Reading gave an average score of 49.6 with a mean variation of 14.4, and speaking an average of 67.5, with a mean variation of 15.7.

This average difference of 36 percent as contrasted with the negligible difference in the preliminary experiment seems to indicate that the disposition of an audience to give attention is one third greater for spoken utterance than for reading. (13, p. 469)

In a series of experiments designed to assess various teaching procedures used in college instruction, Harold Jones (10) found that tests of immediate recall "for the content of class lectures . . . [was] about 60% (30 lectures, 782 cases)." When the lecturer was "chosen on the basis of very superior lecturing ability, tests of immediate memory for lecture content averaged 70% (6 lectures, 112 cases)." Jones commented that in testing for immediate memory

individual differences . . . covered a wide range, the highest in each group performing about six times as well as the lowest, in number of points retained. The quartile deviation averaged about 16% . . . Tests of delayed recall for the content of 40-minute lectures showed a rapid initial decrement, from 62% immediate to 45% after 3-4 days, with a slower decrement to 24% after 8 weeks. (10, p. 62)

The restricted efficiency of the lecture method is shown by our data . . . After two months, hardly more than one third remains of the amount which could be recalled in immediate tests, and less than one fourth, on the average, of the essential points emphasized in the lectures . . . a control lecturer, chosen on a basis of exceptional skill in lecturing, obtained only slightly better results. (10, p. 64)

Accordingly the lecture method was deemed less efficient than silent reading. Other experiments did not always support this conclusion. For example, D. A. Worcester* in 1925 commented that his study suggested "that the lec-

ture is more efficacious than the single reading of printed matter . . . " (23, p. 25)

Another type of experiment dealt with the effectiveness of hearing materials presented to large college classes by the lecture method as compared with reading the same or comparable materials.

Two hundred seventy-six male students enrolled in classes in elementary psychology in two large colleges in a major city were arranged in equated groups by Edward B. Greene (7). The students listened to a lecture or read similar but not identical material under comparable classroom conditions. In one college the groups were tested by means of a true-false examination immediately following and again two weeks after the last experimental session. The groups in the other college were tested for immediate retention only by means of a completion test. The students were asked to rate the difficulty of the material and their interest in it. Those who took notes submitted them for rating according to a reliable scale.

Greene found no significant differences on tests for immediate recall "between the average scores of those who heard a lecture and those who read practically the same material for themselves." Delayed tests "showed that the lectures resulted in considerably better retention than the reading periods." Greene pointed out that notes kept by the subjects permitted them to review the material.

The highest quarter of students, as indicated either by scores on the Thorndike Entrance Examination or by scholastic grades in college, tended to be slightly better after the reading than after the lecture. The opposite was true for the poorest quarter of students . . . Among the two midmost quarters of students the two methods of presentation were about equally effective. (7, p. 528)

After the experimental sessions, 69% of the students in one college and 49% in the other believed they gained more from their own reading than from the lecture. "These beliefs were confirmed by test scores in only about 60% of the cases." (7, p. 529)

*reviewed in the previous article of this series.

Another investigation of learning from lectures versus learning from reading was reported by Stephen Corey in 1934 (4). One of two equated groups of freshmen in the Teachers College of the University of Nebraska listened to a 2500-word lecture on "outlining" delivered at about 100 words per minute. The second group read silently a mimeographed copy of the lecture. The reading group was given the same amount of time as that consumed in the lecture. Neither group was permitted to take notes. Each group was tested by means of a "semi-objective true-false, completion, and short answer type" test. "This same test was given again, without warning, two weeks later to measure retention over a longer interval." Scores for standardized reading tests, vocabulary, and intelligence were available for the subjects used. Corey concluded from the experiment that:

1. Immediate recall is better for materials students have read than for the same materials heard in lecture.
2. The two types of presentation have no very significant effect upon delayed (fourteen days) recall.
3. The scores on tests measuring retention of materials read are more closely related to standardized test results for reading, vocabulary, and intelligence than are scores on tests measuring the retention of materials listened to in lecture.
4. There is a tendency for students scoring in the highest psychological test quartile to do relatively better on reading than on lecture tests.
5. When students in the highest psychological test quartile of the reading group are compared with those in the highest quartile of the lecture group with respect to delayed recall, no significant differences appear. The same is true of other psychological test quartiles. (4, pp. 469-470)

It is difficult to generalize from the foregoing studies on the relative effectiveness of the lecture versus reading as a method of presentation. Much of the success in learning is apparently traceable to factors such as the skill of the oral presentation, the nature of the subject matter, and the extent and nature of individual differences within each group.

Oral versus the Visual Presentation in Silent Movies

Whenever a new device for communication is developed, educators attempt to ascertain its values in classroom teaching. This has been true of the movies, radio, and television. Comparisons have been made of the relative effectiveness of seeing materials or stories in the form of films, as opposed to reading them silently or hearing them read.

In an attempt to determine the "pedagogical and moral value of motion pictures," John Lacy (11) experimented with three different methods of presenting a story to children. In 1919 Lacy selected 315 boys in grades VI through IX from two New York public schools. These boys were divided into groups and were presented the experimental material. One group viewed the first reel of a five-reel movie, "The Hoosier Schoolmaster"; a second group read equivalent material in printed form; while a third group listened to a verbatim reproduction given by a storyteller. Over a period of three weeks a rotation in procedure permitted each group to be subjected to each of the three methods of presentation. Following each session the subjects were asked "questions of fact, questions of inference, and questions of moral discrimination." Lacy concluded from this experiment that:

Questions of fact, inference, or moral discrimination can be answered more adequately when the narrative material has been presented by a story-teller or as reading matter than when presented through the motion picture; of the two more successful methods of presentation, the story-telling has the advantage. (11, p. 453)

When the boys were asked to express their preference as to which method they preferred for the presentation of the remaining two-fifths of the story, "the vote favored the presentation through the motion picture; next in order came the reading, while story-telling was the least popular of all. The percentages were respectively 90.8, 5.0, and 0.4, 3.8 not voting. Thus our results would indicate that the order of effectiveness of the various

methods, where appeal to interest is concerned, is exactly the opposite of that which obtains if the ability to reproduce and apply the material presented is concerned." (11, p. 454)

When the pupils were tested on questions of fact, inference, and moral discrimination after a period of three to five weeks, "the differences between the various methods of presentation . . . were less in the tests for delayed recall than in the original ones. The same relative position, however, is retained by each method." (11, p. 455)

A different result was obtained in another series of experiments. In the early 1920's Joseph J. Weber (19, 21) undertook a series of experiments to determine the relative value of motion pictures as compared to the usual classroom procedures. From 300-600 seventh graders in New York public schools were involved in the experiments. These "were divided arbitrarily into four groups . . . intended to be equal in mental ability." Weber's procedure, in general, was to present a classroom lesson to the pupils by four different methods. One method consisted of the study of the lesson in printed form. Another involved an oral presentation of the lesson by a teacher. In the third, the lesson was presented by means of a silent film. Explanatory comments accompanied the film in the fourth approach. Rotation of groups, methods, and tests designed to measure the learning derived from each method of presentation were a part of the experiment. Immediate and delayed testing results disclosed the superiority of combined film-lecture presentations over the other methods used. "The averages of the 'Film-Lecture' presentation are almost invariably higher than any of the other three methods," stated Weber in one report. (19, p. 106) When the subjects were asked "whether they preferred the film-lesson method or the no-film method the vote was 13 to 1 in favor of the film-aided method." (21, p. 114) Weber also reported the pupils favored the film after the lecture presentation rather

than before it by a vote of 8 to 7.

Clarence D. Jayne, in a more recent study (8), affirms the value of the film-lecture presentation. However, he points out that his study "is not a comparison of the visual method and the lecture method . . . it is rather a comparison of one way of using silent motion pictures (the mere showing of the pictures with no supplementary procedures) with a lecture method which included the use of such visual materials as blackboard diagrams, and so forth." (8, p. 47)

Two hundred seventy-one high school freshman in ten general science classes were organized into five groups of two classes each. By a "rotated group method" the subjects were given similar informational material by means of silent films and lectures illustrated by "such visual materials as blackboard diagrams, etc." Objective tests covering the factual material presented were given to the students prior to the experimental sessions and at varying intervals up to fifteen weeks thereafter. Data based on equated groups and the total population were obtained. "It is interesting to note that the same general results were obtained when the total population was considered as when the smaller equated groups were used." (8, p. 51)

Jayne reported that:

each of the ten classes made a larger immediate gain from the lecture than from the film presentation . . . data for the five groups shows that in each case the lecture gain was greater than the film gain, and that the difference in each case was statistically significant. To . . . compare the retention of materials presented by lecture and by film, curves were drawn . . . These curves show that at the end of three weeks the percent retained was considerably larger for the film than for the lecture groups (85 percent for the film as compared with 76 percent for the lecture with the equated groups) but as time went by the difference in the percent retained tended to become less. Thus at the end of twelve weeks the percentage retained for both procedures is almost identical with the equated groups. (8, pp. 52, 54, 56)

Jayne concluded:

The study seems to indicate that the increased learning which comes from the use of visual materials . . . is not due primarily to the visual experience alone, but rather to the adding of a visual experience to other teaching procedures. It suggests that visual experiences alone . . . may be less effective than the lecture method, at least for informational learning . . . The most effective learning will probably come from the proper integration of many types of experiences—not from concentration upon one. (8, p. 58)

Accordingly, we have an emphasis on the value of integrating visual and auditory approaches in order to achieve the most effective learning. Somewhat broader interpretation of the learning process is inherent in the following experiment.

In 1922, Weber (20) prepared a list of 250 words selected from the commonest 500 in E. L. Thorndike's *The Teacher's Word Book*. These words were arranged in five columns and submitted to 83 "experienced educators" in an educational psychology class during a University of Kansas summer session. Over a five-day period the subjects were instructed to decide which of seven categories of experience "has contributed most to . . . each word's present meaning." The categories established were: thinking, visual, kinaesthetic, auditory, instinctive and other organic factors, cutaneous, olfactory and gustatory experiences. Explanations of each category were supplied the subjects. Auditory experiences, for example, included "hearing various noises and sounds; music; spoken words - conversational, narrative, descriptive, argumentative, exhortative, interrogatory, etc." (20, pp. 286-287) The subjects, in addition, were to indicate whether they were certain, doubtful, or merely guessing in their classification of each word.

Based upon 19,228 separate judgments is this "distribution of experience-as it functions in word learning":

| | |
|-------------|-------|
| thinking | 33.6% |
| visual | 30.7 |
| kinesthetic | 14.3 |
| auditory | 11.7 |
| instinctive | 5.6 |

| | |
|-----------------------|-----|
| cutaneous | 2.8 |
| olfactory & gustatory | 1.3 |

When the thinking category was eliminated, Weber found the first three categories were: visual experiences, 46%; kinesthetic, 22%; and auditory, 18%.

Weber compared these results with a preliminary experiment he had made one year before—in the spring of 1921. In the earlier experiment he selected at random 50 words from Ayres' list of the *Thousand Commonest Words* and submitted these to 81 psychologists and "experienced educators" at Teachers College, Columbia University. The following distribution was reported: visual experiences, 40%; auditory, 25%; tactile, 17%; miscellaneous organic, 15% and taste and smell, 3%. The "results," stated Weber, "compare favorably with my present 1922 study distribution." (20, p. 315)

Weber, an early advocate of visual aids, commented that:

Too much of our teaching is auditory appeal. Of course the function plays a significant role in musical education, in the acquisition of linguistic skills, and in the arousal and stimulation of thought by verbally stated problems. But to depend upon auditory appeal for the elucidation of relationships which can only be generalized from manipulation and visual exploration is pure professional inefficiency. Many a teacher grows impatient and calls her pupils morons simply because they seem unable to learn from merely being told . . . Reform in method is . . . desirable. The auditory appeal—excessive 'telling'—should be reduced whenever and wherever possible, and its place should largely be taken by seeing and doing interwoven with thinking. (20, p. 285; 317)

These experiments seemed to demonstrate the value of combining approaches to learning and particularly of using picture material to reinforce other methods of presentation.

Oral Versus Written Examinations

From 1920 to 1933 a number of investigators tried to determine whether objective tests could be given as effectively in oral as in mimeographed form. If they could be, time

and expense necessary in preparing examinations might be reduced.

In 1920, J. Crosby Chapman suggested that an intelligence examination of small groups could be made orally with reliability comparable to that of group intelligence examinations utilizing written blanks. "Apart from its economy," stated Chapman, "it has the obvious advantage of being independent of reading—an advantage which the usual group intelligence examination does not possess." (3, p. 269)

Chapman composed such a test for grades 6-12 in 1920 and revised it in 1925. The questions were dictated orally and students wrote the answers. After Chapman had used the examination with several groups of children and had made a statistical analysis of the results, he concluded the examinations correlated as closely with the results of the combined Otis and Haggerty examinations as the latter two correlated with each other. (3, p. 785)

Additional studies of orally presented examinations versus the true-false and multiple choice written form were reported in the latter part of the 1920's and early 1930's.

In one of these studies conducted by N. Franklin Stump in 1928 (18), one hundred nine students in four college classes were used as subjects to determine:

what difference, if any, exists between the presentation of problems orally as contrasted with the printed form of the true-false examination and whether . . . diverse methods of presentation show any difference between successful and unsuccessful pupils when success is measured in terms of achievement in proportion to ability to achieve. (18, p. 423)

After three weeks of class study, the students were given an oral true-false test. The "statements were read slowly and distinctly . . . twice." The same test was then presented in mimeographed form.

Stump concluded from the experiment that "the extra time needed to prepare mimeographed copies of True-False so that each member of the class may have a copy during the examination, is probably not justifiably spent

. . . " (18, p. 424)

A coefficient of correlation of +.47 was reported between scores on the oral and the mimeographed forms. When oral and written presentations were correlated with mental ability as determined by the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, it was found:

that the coefficient is nearly four times as large with the oral examination as with the written examination; that is, $r=0.74$ and $r=0.20$, respectively . . . The coefficients are sufficiently high to show that we may predict that a student with a high IQ will make a high score on an oral true-false test and that the pupil with the low score will make a relatively low score on the same examination. (18, p. 424)

In 1929 Harvey C. Lehman (12) reported an effort to determine the relative value of oral and written presentations of true-false questions. Three hundred ninety-six students in fifteen classes in educational psychology were given 85 true-false statements. These were presented orally first, then immediately afterwards, in a mimeographed form. Among the 27,969 answers Lehman found 6,921 errors when the oral presentation was scored; 7,035 errors on the written form. Thus the students failed 24.74% of the oral form and 25.15% of the written form. Lehman concluded: "In the present study the oral presentation was found to be fully as efficient as the mimeographed presentation." (12, p. 472)

In another study, Milton Jenson reported in *School and Society*, in 1930 (9), that three methods of presenting true-false examinations—visual, oral, visual-oral—were used with three classes of beginning psychology and six classes of freshman college English. He concluded:

The surprising finding . . . is the large number of students appearing to much better advantage by visual over the oral method of presentation and by the visual-oral over the visual (49%). How to account for this and in what manner one should allow for it, I am unprepared to say. It seems to me that the visual-oral method of presentation (a combining of the two) solved much of the problem in my own, the psychology, group. (9, p. 677)

Jenson then calls attention to a contradictory finding and presents a somewhat different conclusion.

Such was not the case in the English group, moreover, where there were differences of extreme magnitude (three or more times the standard error of the differences) as often or more frequently in differences involving the visual-oral method as when only the visual and oral were considered. Further investigation is essential to the solution of this problem if we are to shape our testing procedures in conformity with individual differences appearing in the amount that a student "knows" where the same examining stimuli are presented by different methods. Until such investigations are made and until we are in a position to give more attention to the individual within a college group, the oral method of presenting true-false examinations may be considered as effective as the visual and considerably more desirable because of the resulted economies in both time and money. (9, p. 677)

When these students were asked to indicate which method they preferred, 85% expressed preference for the visual method, 30% preferred an oral to a combined visual-oral presentation, but no student preferred the oral to the visual procedure.

N. Franklin Stump, in 1931, reported somewhat similar results in "Listening Versus Reading Method in the True-False Examination." (17) When both methods were used with five college classes in which the students were asked which method they preferred, 84% stated that they preferred reading and 16% favored listening. "Though," Stump pointed out, "a large percent of students prefer the reading method they seem to do as well by the listening procedure." (17, p. 562)

"The Reliability and Validity of Multiple-Response Tests When Presented Orally" was reported by Verner M. Sims and L. B. Knox (15) in 1932. "Four forms of the Thorndike Test of Word Knowledge, a one-hundred item five-response test, were administered to a group of one hundred students enrolled in grades nine through twelve. The four forms were all administered within a period of one month." (15, p. 657) In order to determine whether reducing the number of possible choices from

five to four or three brought about different results, Sims and Knox eliminated one and two of the wrong choices in the answers of two forms of the test. One form of the test was presented in the usual written procedure; the others were dictated orally.

"As a result of this investigation," Sims and Knox stated, "the following tentative conclusions seem justified:"

1. Multiple-response tests presented orally are but slightly more difficult than the same tests presented visually.
2. Multiple-response tests may be presented orally without seriously reducing the reliability.
3. Multiple-response tests presented orally tend to measure that which is measured by the same tests presented visually.
4. There is no improvement in the reliability of oral multiple-response tests when they are corrected for guessing but, such correction seems to slightly increase the correlation with the visual test.
5. Four or five responses seem superior to three responses when the tests are presented orally.
6. Until further evidence is presented it seems wise to recommend for oral presentation the five-response test with no correction for guessing. (15, pp. 661-662)

Thomas H. Briggs and George H. Armacost (1), in 1933, read the first part of a two-part lecture to a class in Teachers College, Columbia University which had been warned that a true-false test would follow the presentation. The second part of the lecture was preceded and followed by an oral true-false test. A statistical analysis of the results of each test was made. The investigators concluded:

Both from the statistical data and from their [the authors'] impressions, that the oral true-false test as a measure of immediate recall compares very favorably with such a test presented in visual form. Their conclusion is entirely consistent, therefore, with the findings of other reported studies. If similar results are found for recall after longer periods, the labor of printing or

mimeographing such tests can safely be abandoned. (1, p. 596)

Two more recent reports indicate that interest continues in this aspect of research. One investigation was reported in 1951, the other in September, 1958. In the former, Charles L. Odom and Ray W. Miles investigated the relative effectiveness of visual versus oral presentations of true-false achievement tests when students in an elementary psychology class objected to the "instructors' practice of reading true-false questions aloud to them, claiming that they could make higher scores if the questions were mimeographed so that they could read them for themselves." (14, p. 470)

Two hundred students - "a typical group of sophomore students in a state college" were given fifteen tests of from 50 to 75 true-false questions each based upon text material considered in a general psychology course. One hundred students read the questions in mimeographed form. Another one hundred students, matched with the visual group, were administered the tests "by instructors' reading aloud . . . each question twice without comment . . . until the particular test was completed." (14, p. 473) Odom and Miles concluded:

1. In general, students in General Psychology do about equally well on achievement tests of the true-false type whether the questions are read to them by the instructor or presented to them in mimeographed form. Whatever difference there may be would seem to be in favor of oral presentation.
2. There is a difference between the performance of superior and inferior students on true-false type achievement tests with regard to the importance of method of presentation. Superior students appear to do about equally well whether the questions are read to them or whether they have an opportunity to read the questions themselves, with some indication that they score slightly higher when they read the questions themselves. Inferior students, on the other hand, do markedly better when questions are read to them by the instructor. (14, p. 475)

In September 1958, Frederick L. Westover (22) reported a study of listening and reading comprehension in test materials. Almost two hundred students enrolled in seven sections of a course in elementary psychology at the University of Alabama were given eight tests composed of both true-false and multiple-choice items. Alternate test forms of "approximately equal difficulty" were administered in reading and listening situations.

Westover concluded that:

there are no group differences among college students in performance on tests administered by listening and reading; that students' preference for listening or reading tests has almost no relation to their performance; that, although more students prefer reading tests to listening tests, experience with both types of testing reduces the preference for the reading mode of testing; and that listening tests are about equally fair as reading tests to students of high and low scholarship and high and low mental ability. (22, p. 25)

When Westover studied the performance of individuals rather than groups in the listening and reading tests, he found "consistent and important differences among individuals in such performance." (22, p. 25)

If, for the twenty students, the ten percent who deviated most in favor of listening, we count the number of times each student did better on the listening mode of testing, we find one student who did better on the listening tests eight times out of eight; three who did better in listening seven times out of eight; eleven who did better in listening six times out of eight; three who did better in listening five times out of eight; and two who did better in listening four times out of eight. In the other instances, these students either did equally well on the two modes of testing or did better on the reading than on the listening mode of testing. In every case, however, these students showed a plurality of scores in favor of listening. In other words, these students did consistently better on the listening tests than on the reading tests. (22, p. 25)

The effect of a mode of presentation upon a student's performance was pointed out by Westover when he examined:

the record of a student who had received a failing mark in the course in elementary psychology . . . It was found that if this student's term average had been calculated on the basis of his scores on the listening tests, instead of both listening and reading tests, he would have received a passing mark. In other words, this student had been awarded a failing mark, not because of his inability to understand psychology as measured by his answers to spoken questions, but by his poor performance in answering questions which he read. (22, p. 25)

In this series of studies, it is clear that the oral method of presenting certain types of examinations is as effective a method as that involving the presentation in written form.

Research in Oral and Written Presentations of Advertising Materials

Recent research studies in the utilization of radio broadcasts in class-room instruction were preceded by studies investigating the effectiveness of radio presentations in promoting manufactured products. In the period 1925-1936, some investigations were made of the relative effectiveness of visual and oral presentations of advertising materials.

H. E. Burtt and E. M. Dobell (2) found that the curves of forgetting suggested that an auditory presentation was as effective as a visual presentation. A series of fictitious advertising materials—"pairs of words—a commodity and a fictitious trade name for it" was presented visually by means of a balaopticon and aurally by reading aloud the same material to the subjects. Tests for recall and recognition were given at intervals following the initial presentation. Forty-one college students "in an advanced class" underwent the visual presentation. "A different group of subjects . . . participated [in the aural procedure] —forty-seven members of an elementary psychology class." (2, p. 18) The per-

cent of retention made by the subjects in the auditory presentation was slightly better than that made by the subjects in the visual presentation.

In 1935, Henry DeWick (5) reported another comparative study of visual and auditory presentations of advertising material. Seventy-three students in an elementary psychology class at the University of North Carolina were divided into two groups by taking alternate names from an alphabetical list. These subjects were given thirty advertisements selected by the investigator after a "study of many magazine and radio advertisements." Each advertisement was from 70 to 80 words in length with fictitious trade names inserted in three places—beginning, middle, and end. The trade names—with some modification—were "proper names taken from the directory of the American Psychological Association."

The visual part of the test was given first to Group I. This test consisted of a book of fifteen advertisements with alternating blank pages. The readers were given one minute to read each advertisement. When all fifteen were completed, they were asked to write first the names of the products, next the trade names, and then all they could remember about each.

The auditory presentation was given first to Group II. The auditors listened to the advertisements over a radio loudspeaker. Each advertisement was read in forty-five seconds. The testing procedure was similar to that in the visual presentation. For each group, both the visual and the auditory approaches were employed alternately.

The groups were tested for recall on the next day and again on the fifth day. Five months later the participants were asked to recall as many trade names as possible.

DeWick concluded in part:

Auditory presentation of advertising copy is distinctly superior to visual presentation when the problem involved is the recall of products and their trade names

ment. Twelve of the advertisements were presented visually on a screen, twelve were presented orally by means of a radio loudspeaker, and the remaining twelve were presented by combined screen-loudspeaker procedures. "Rotation of materials, sections of subjects, and modes of stimulation were provided to equalize practice effects, position advantages, novelty values, differences in difficulty of materials, and differences in memory capacity of subjects." (6, p. 21)

Immediately following this procedure, an aided recall test was given in which the subjects were asked to write the trade name when the commodity name was supplied. In this test six names were presented visually, then six by loudspeaker, then six visually, and so on down the list. A third test - a recognition test - followed the recall test. In the third test all the trade names given in the original advertisements were read to the subjects along with an equal number of trade names which had not appeared originally. The subjects were to indicate whether or not the name read had appeared in the advertisements or to indicate that they could not decide "as to whether or not the commodity trade name appeared in the advertisements."

Among the conclusions drawn were these:

Under the conditions of this experiment visual-auditory mode always surpasses simple visual or simple auditory mode, with complete or highly reliable differences in twenty out of twenty visual comparisons. Variability and guessing are least for visual-auditory mode, next lowest for auditory mode, and the largest for visual mode.

Auditory mode surpasses visual mode in nineteen out of twenty situations, with completely reliable or highly reliable differences in fourteen of the twenty comparisons. The one case of visual superiority is by a small and unreliable difference believed to be due to faulty experimental conditions. Variability and guessing are less for auditory than for visual-auditory

mode. (6, pp. 52-53)

Elliott reported further that the less educated group in this study surpassed the more educated group. The women also surpassed the men.

Both the less educated and the women listen more to radio than do the more educated and the men, according to recent surveys. This might mean that the less educated and the women have become habituated to auditory reception and more responsive to that mode, though there is no proof that the subjects of our present experiment, themselves, did actually listen more to radio in one group or sex than in the other. (6, p. 54)

Concluding statement

In this article the writers have presented and examined studies of the relative value of listening to materials presented in lecture form as compared with reading the same subject matter. In general, the studies show little difference in the results. As in other studies of listening *versus* reading as ways of learning, there are inconsistencies and inadequacies in the reports.

A section of this article has dealt with a comparison of the effectiveness of seeing pictures *versus* reading a story or a selection. Again, the results of the studies are inconsistent and inconclusive.

The third part of this article has included studies of the relative value of listening to an examination administered orally and reading the examination. Here the results are rather consistent. There appears to be little difference in the results obtained in objective examinations administered orally and in written form.

The fourth section of this paper set forth a few studies which described the relative effectiveness of reading or hearing advertising materials. The oral presentation appeared to be a somewhat superior method in several investigations.

It is abundantly clear that these studies do not yield incontrovertible results concerning

after a delay of from five days to five months.

Auditory presentation is slightly superior to visual after a delay of only twenty-four hours . . .

[In] immediate recall of products and their trade names, auditory and visual presentation appear to be nearly equal in effectiveness. Any difference found, however, tends to be in favor of the auditory presentation . . .

Partially correct recalls of products and their trade names and confusions between trade names occur as frequently with one medium of presentation as with the other, and therefore may be neglected in a study of the relative recall values of visual and auditory presentation.

When the problem involved is the recall of ideas expressed in the copy of the advertisement, auditory presentation is distinctly superior to visual presentation. This superiority is not marked after a delay of twenty-four hours between the presentation and the recall, but it is very marked with immediate recall or recall after a delay of one hundred sixty-eight hours. (5, p. 264)

In an experiment similar in method to that made by Henry DeWick, Frank N. Stanton determined "the comparative effectiveness of fictitious advertising copy presented to the subjects by the printed page versus that delivered through a radio loudspeaker." (16, p. 45) Each of two series of eight carefully selected advertisements were presented to one hundred sixty "students of both sexes enrolled in psychology courses at The Ohio State University during the summer quarter of 1933. They were divided into four groups to permit the necessary reversals of copy and method of presentation." (16, p. 47) Printed booklets which the subjects read silently were used in the visual procedure. In the auditory presentation the advertisements were read over a public address system. A series of recall and recognition tests were given the subjects at intervals of one, seven, and twenty-one days following the presentation. Stanton concluded:

The results of the experiment agree within limits with the work done by DeWick . . . Testing one day, seven days, and twenty-one days after stimulation by Recall, Aided Recall, and Recognition tests for correct trade-name-commodity association built up by the two media showed the auditory method superior. Not all cases showing an auditory superiority were statistically significant. The peak of the superiority in the Recall Tests came for the seven day period. At the twenty-one day check both auditory and visual results were much lower and the margin between the two had suffered by the lapse of time. (16, pp. 62-64)

Stanton commented further that the results might be qualified because of

the discrepancy arising from the experimental situation between actual reading-listening conditions and the ones set up in the study . . . We must not overlook the participants who were college students, and their surroundings, habits, ages, and interests . . . When we consider that the college student is a trained reader, such an experiment with other persons may even show a greater difference in favor of audition for certain economic levels. (16, pp. 63-64)

In 1935, Frank Elliott (6) reported an investigation "to determine the relative effectiveness of advertising directed (a) to the eye, (b) to the ear, and (c) to the two senses simultaneously." Elliott selected one hundred forty-three adults as participants in the experiment. These were divided into two groups of three sections each. One group consisted of non-college CWA employees of the Federal government engaged in clerical work at Teachers College, Columbia University. The second group was composed of students in extension classes at Columbia University. Approximately equal numbers of men and women were in each group. To each of the sections the experimenter presented a series of thirty-six short, fictitious advertisements. The subjects were asked first to classify the advertisements in either of two categories—descriptive or announce-

Councilletter

The Pittsburgh Convention Thanksgiving 1958

To think for their times is the obligation of today's children and youth, according to Mrs. Virginia Sorenson, speaker for the Children's Book Luncheon on Friday, November 28. Nearly four hundred listeners, teachers, librarians, and others heard the Newbery prize winner, speaking on "New Adages for Old," point out the need to formulate, verbalize, and put into use the ethical and practical concepts appropriate to the space age.

With many stories gathered in her own home, in different regions of the United States, and in European countries, Mrs. Sorenson pictured the lives and attitudes of modern children. The implications for teachers, and other adults, were impressive. But the author of *Miracles on Maple Hill* emphasized that the writer, while seeking to illuminate life for children through works of the creative imagination, "has not the answers, only seeks to clarify the questions."

"Reading and Writing" occupied attention at the Elementary Section Meeting on Saturday morning.

Risks to the personal and academic development of children, lying in unthinking pressures and narrow evaluation, were pointed out by Dr. Helen Mackintosh, Chief of the Elementary Division, United States Office of Education. Yet the speaker and the members of the panel that followed indicated that many teachers, in all parts of the United States, are guiding children in happy classrooms to interest as well as to competence in Reading and Writing.

Illustrations of creative teaching were presented by Miss Jane Ragland of the University

of Wisconsin; Dr. Alvina Burrows, New York University; Dr. Mildred Dawson, Sacramento State College, California; Miss Gladys Merville, Supervisor, Norfolk, Virginia; Miss Audrey Dickhart, University of the State of New York; and Miss Agnes Krarup, Director of School Library Services, Pittsburgh. Mrs. Esther Bialer, Pittsburgh Schools, with a sixth grade group, demonstrated the competence of children to read widely and their interest in sharing their reading with each other.

Two matters of importance were taken up in the brief business meeting. A nominating committee was elected, consisting of Dr. Mildred Dawson, Sacramento, Chairman, Dr. Marian Anderson, Boston, and Miss Blanche Trezvant, Tulsa, Oklahoma. They were requested to nominate, for election in 1959, members for the Elementary Section Committee, and Directors representing the Elementary Membership.

In closing, the Chairman reflected the deep concern of the Elementary Section Committee and of the Executive Committee to be sure that the Council serves as fully as possible the needs of the elementary schools, as well as of the secondary schools and colleges.

Therefore, all members of the organization are urged to send suggestions for activities that the National Council of Teachers of English should undertake on behalf of the elementary membership to:

Elizabeth Guilfoile
Chairman Elementary Section
of the Nation Council of
Teachers of English
414 N. Fort Thomas Ave.,
Fort Thomas, Kentucky

the efficiency of listening or reading as a way of learning. It seems fair to conclude that learning, of course, is possible under either the visual or the auditory approach and that the variations which are found in results may be accounted for by factors such as individual differences in experience and ability, variation in the nature of the materials presented, and the nature of the testing or evaluative instruments employed. Moreover, it appears that from some studies we may conclude that improvement in learning efficiency may be heightened by judicious use of a combination of methods of presentation. For example, in some cases, the simultaneous use of listening to a selection at the same time it is presented in picture form may increase the amount of learning and its retention.

The third and final article in this series will consider more fully the age of the subjects and the effectiveness of learning by oral and visual methods of presentation. Although the variable of age has been insufficiently studied, there are several pertinent studies which will be reviewed. In addition, the effect of the difficulty of the material and the rate of presentation on learning through the visual and through the auditory approach will be examined.

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York Retail Store at 42 E. 33rd Street. Many other 25c pamphlets in the Merit Badge Library are helpful to English teachers, including the ones on Printing, Bookbinding, Public Speaking, Indian Lore, and Dramatics.

The A. B. Dick Company, 5700 West Touhy Avenue, Chicago 31, Illinois, will send a large packet free of charge entitled "How to Plan and Publish a Mimeographed Newspaper." The National Scholastic Press Association, 18 Journalism Building, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota, has pamphlets for sale. The best way to study journalism is by studying the style of the best newspapers being published today. Papers which have been rated as the best in this country include *The New York Times*, *The Washington Post*, *The Christian Science Monitor*, *The Des Moines Register and Tribune*, *St. Louis Post-Dispatch*, *Baltimore Sun*, *New York Herald-Tribune*, *Milwaukee Journal*, *Denver Post*, *Louisville Courier Journal*, *Chicago Tribune*, and the *Los Angeles Times*.

Speaking to teachers attending a workshop at Iowa City on "The Newspaper in the Classroom" W. Earl Hall, Editor of the *Mason City Globe Gazette*, said, "Newspapers and schools are partners in the broad field of education, for information, enlightenment, and education are the core of newspapering." The trend in modern journalism is to write longer articles which give historical, scientific, and biographical material to enlighten readers. This trend should be copied in school papers, so that young schoolboys may write articles with depth and perspective instead of the choppy surface notes which usually appears in school papers. Students, even at a very young age, should try to see the relation between history and 20th century events.

Two brothers in Quincy, Massachusetts, Jimmy and Gerard Foley, aged 10 and 7 years, put out their own paper, "Jimmy's News," once a week and have not missed an edition since August, 1956. They gather news and advertising six afternoons a week and put out 200 copies every Sunday. The president of Boston College, Father Walsh, S. J., wrote the boys this letter: "A good newspaperman is a missionary for the truth. He can discover and uncover what people need to know in order to be free and happy with one another. He can shine the light and lead the way. He can warn us or protect and defend those who need help. He can write for our pleasure and entertain us. He stands apart, like the wise man, and observes us and allows us to know the truth and helps us to understand ourselves and the world God made for us. As you grow older, Jimmy, you will know that a good newspaperman bears a proud and important place among us. Perhaps that is why he is called a member of the fourth estate."

Some books on journalism include *I Work on a Newspaper* by Henry Lent, *Get That Story: Journalism - Its Lore and Thrills* by John J. Floherty, *Joseph Pulitzer: Front Page Pioneer* by Iris Noble, *I Wanted to Write* by Kenneth Roberts, *Let's Take a Trip to a Newspaper* by Laura Sootin, and *Nellie Bly* by Iris Noble and also *Nellie Bly* by Nina B. Baker. A good motto for the journalist is "Get it first, but first get it right." The teacher's part is like the role of a great editor who can draw out good stories from his reporters and feature writers. When a reporter wrote especially well, a great editor, the late Herbert Bayard Swope of the *New York World*, never failed to send a memo, highly prized by the recipient, which said, "That was a good story you wrote today."

Idea Inventory

Edited by LOUISE HOVDE MORTENSEN

Boy Scouts are in the 11-13 age bracket and, therefore, are usually in the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades. Their teachers of English can help them prepare for a Merit Badge in Journalism by class assignments in the requirements for this badge as outlined in the 1957 revised edition of the *Handbook for Boys* published by the National Council of Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, N. J. As printed on page 487 of the *Handbook*, the requirements are here reprinted *verbatim* with the permission of the National Director of Editorial Service for the Council, Mr. Lex R. Lucas.

Journalism

Do any nine of the following:

1. Write stories covering satisfactorily the following assignments, demonstrating that you know the principles of good news writing, including the elements of a good lead paragraph: (a) a news incident; (b) a routine club or society meeting; (c) a lecture, sermon, or political address.
2. Write: (a) an editorial; (b) a feature or human interest story; (c) a review of a play, motion picture, radio or television show, concert, book, or art or photography exhibit.
3. (a) Explain how the articles in Requirements 1 and 2 differ. (b) Secure the publication of at least one of these articles.
4. (a) Prepare a simple set of headline styles which will serve all needs of a small newspaper, indicating type size and approximate count for each. (b) Using this schedule, write good headlines for the three stories in Requirement 1.
5. Present photographic or cartoon copy, or the suggestions for such copy, as an illustration for a news story and write the caption for it.
6. Read and correct proof, using the conventional proofreader's signs.
7. Show that you know what is meant by the following terms: point, font, pica, face, case, linotype, hand-set, galley proof; halftone, electrotypes, screen, stereotype mat.
8. (a) Explain the steps necessary to copyright a book, magazine, or newspaper; tell what rights are granted by a copyright and for what period. (b) Explain what is meant by freedom of the press and why we have libel laws. Tell what plagiarism is.
9. Prepare a dummy for the printer of an eight-page newspaper or magazine, including the placing of different-size advertisements to cover the equivalent of two pages.
10. Explain the process of preparing a modern newspaper for publication, demonstrating a satisfactory knowledge of the various departments and executives and their functions. Explain the importance of the deadline.
11. Have contributed as a reporter, or as editor, or a member of the editorial or business staff (either voluntary or paid) on a newspaper or a local council troop, school, trade, farm, or club publication for at least six issues.
12. Present a scrapbook, including unpublished copy as well as clippings of published material, filed under date and place of publication.

These twelve requirements are explained in detail in the Merit Badge pamphlet on Journalism which is available for 25 cents at local Boy Scout offices or from the Chicago Retail Store, 9 W. Washington Street, or the New

Mrs. Mortensen has degrees in English from Smith College and Columbia, with special work at the University of Iowa, New York University, and Drake University.



Louise H. Mortensen

N. Y., is \$1.00. A handy order blank for book purchase is carried in each issue.

For combining reading and music in a program here are two good companions: *The Wonderful World of Music* by Benjamin Britten and Imogen Holst (Garden City Books) and the new series of filmstrips and correlated recordings of *Opera and Ballet Stories* issued by The Jam Handy Organization, 2821 East Grand Boulevard, Detroit 11, Michigan, and available from all Jam Handy dealers. The book by Britten and Holst traces the history of music from the "sound and rhythm which existed on the earth's surface millions of years before there were any men to hear them" to the jazz and twelve-note scale of today. Sound, rhythm, notation and symbols are explained and some of the great masters and their music are introduced. There is also a discussion of the history and development of musical composition and musical instruments.

The filmstrips in color present Wagner's *Lohengrin* and *The Mastersingers*, Delibes' *Coppelia* ballet, The Magic Flute of Mozart, Verdi's *Aida* and Rossini's *The Barber of Seville*.

One side of the correlated recordings narrates the caption of each illustration with the narration followed by thematic music. The reverse side gives the orchestral treatment of the principal arias of the particular opera.

Ann Sannemann, librarian, Lawndale-Chicago Boys' Clubs, wrote me about some adventuring she is doing in her library this year. "I am going to have something a little different in our story-hour," she said. "I am using the theme 'Around the World the Book Way' and have several copies of the books which will be of help in this project. Included will be children of different lands, the customs, games, way of life, costumes and whatever I feel might be of interest to the children. What the books will not have, WE will look up in the reference books in the library. It is a standing joke around here with most of my library

group that when I am asked something, I always say, 'Let's look it up.' I know some of my youngsters must think I am awfully stupid at times, but this does teach them that there are books in the library which can be of help to them. When we put on our 'Gay Nineties' program, you have no idea how much looking up we did just as a matter of curiosity about the 'good old days.'

"With the high school group, we have formed an Adventurer's Club. In this group, the boys may read an adventure book and tell about it for general discussion, or they can make up an adventure in which the plot can be fictional but the places and the time must be factual. The Adventurer's Club is also an experiment and we shall see what we shall see.

"The Stamp and Coin Club is going fine and we are featuring two films this week at our meeting: *Stamps in the Making* and *Postal Operations*. Of course we are visiting all the stamp and coin club exhibits and shows in the area and we are already talking about our own Spring Exhibit."

In view of the concern expressed rather widely in newspapers and magazines over neglect of the gifted and the bright child in our ever-growing school population, a new adventure in research may prove encouraging. Dr. Edna D. Baxter, of the Baxter Foundation for Research in Education, 3780 Woodside Road, Woodside, California, has just announced the beginning of a research project on how to reach bright children in public schools through the school curricula. The Foundation is engaged at present in selecting schools in the United States and Canada to participate in this study.

Teachers who have been thinking and perhaps wondering about all the evaluative research going on regarding education may find the article, "How Much Are They Helped?" by Elizabeth Herzog, Assistant Chief, Technical Studies Branch, Division of Research, Children's Bureau, in the December 1958 issue of *Children* magazine, most enlightening.

Windows on the World

The Popular Arts in the Classroom

Edited by IRIS VINTON

Adventuring

On October 29, the Girl Scouts of the U. S. A., in cooperation with the National Broadcasting Company and the Educational Television and Radio Center at Ann Arbor, Michigan, presented the first of ten programs in a new educational television series for young people of all ages - *Adventuring in the Hand Arts*. The organization was the first national youth agency to use educational television for this purpose. It was made possible by gifts donated by Friends of Girl Scouting.

In an early announcement, Mrs. Charles U. Culmer, National President, said: "Recognizing that television has become a vital force in the lives of America's children, the national Girl Scout organization is embarking on this first experimental series primarily to stimulate Girl Scout troops and leaders to new approaches in the arts field.

"We hope the series will be a milestone for us and for other public service organizations who, like us, are looking for new and better ways to bring program resource material to their membership."

The series was about people and things - primitive people living today in remote corners of this atomic world - and the beautiful, useful things they make with their own hands. It was intended to help all of us, young and old, who live in a highly industrialized society, recapture some of the satisfaction that comes from making things with our hands.

In ten half-hour programs, viewers had the opportunity to become acquainted with people in strange and wonderful parts of the world. They looked at masks, pottery, weaving, wood-carving, toys and jewelry. They learned why people made these things and discovered that

their basic needs were much the same as the viewers'.

The series taught *how* people made things. Famous scholars and craftsmen told about the materials and tools, and demonstrated techniques. Shari Lewis, Emmy Award winner for the best local children's program on TV, was hostess with three Girl Scouts - a Brownie, an Intermediate and a Senior - asking the questions likely to occur to all the young viewers.

The chances are that those who saw the programs found themselves wanting to make things. This was exactly what the Girl Scouts hoped for - to provide information and incentive through the TV series for the general public as well as for Girl Scout troops to develop creative arts.

Interests in the arts and in hobbies of all kinds in turn provide incentives to read. Youngsters who must see an immediate purpose in their reading are not reluctant to gain ideas and knowledge through books on the particular hobbyhorse that they are currently riding. For the teacher or librarian who would like to plan a program around hobbies, recreation, arts and crafts, or sports, the *SportShelf News* with its classified checklists is a valuable aid for both selection and purchase.

For instance, in a recent issue of this monthly periodical there were books listed on everything from *Painting for Amateurs* by J. H. Ousby to *Instructions to Young Stamp Collectors* by Robert Bateman and *Teach Yourself Soccer*. Yearly subscription to *SportShelf News*, 133 West 44th Street, New York 36.

Miss Vinton is Director of Publications Service, Boys' Clubs of America, and edits this column under the sponsorship of the Women's National Book Association.

Iris Vinton



a disseminator of news and music is its proper function, but in time and with intelligent listener reaction the proper function may be arrived at. The music most of you know about. On the whole it is popular and trite. Perhaps many of you, though, are not aware of how the censorship of time enters into news broadcast. Stations' have found, for example, that brief newscasts are the best, from a financial and programming viewpoint; the listener be damned. The majority of these broadcasts are therefore, of five minutes' duration, which really is not much time in which to discuss developments in Washington or what Khrushchev's latest pronouncement is or where and why Mao Tse Chung has directed his philosophy. We usually get twenty seconds of Eisenhower's latest golf excursion (another reason for not considering it a part of the press). I think we can say with certainty that the trench syndrome has affected radio.

On the positive side, we can point to such things as the Broadcasting Foundation of America which has as its purpose the international exchange of radio programs. It grew out of a need for a single agency to procure and distribute broadcasts from other countries. Eventually it is hoped that its work will include television. For the time being, however, it is wonderful to know that local stations can get from this agency such things as a broadcast of the Salzburg Festival, the National Opera of Ankara and the best of BBC. UNESCO, too, is providing radio programs for remote areas; for example, in India and in Columbia panel discussions from our country are listened to and discussed as a result of its work.

The schools are making use mainly of FM programs. One notable experiment took place in Cleveland where one of the schools keeps two students on duty during study periods to make tape recordings of teacher-requested programs. Another interesting development has taken place at the National Gallery in Washington, D. C., where a visitor can rent a pocket

-sized radio receiver called a *lectur* and listen to talks about the paintings as they tour the gallery.

The newspaper for many years has been looked upon by educators as the living textbook, and yet when one looks into the literature about school use of newspapers he finds the usual journalistic approach where students learn the parts of the paper, how to be critical of editorials, and perhaps how newspaper articles are written. Little attention appears to be paid to newspaper chains, which control policy, the importance of going beyond local news, and the newspapers' neglect of fine art and literature. In a word, newspaper use in the school is at a low level of pedagogy. Some good work has been done in using advertising to teach arithmetic, in using articles, maps and charts in teaching social studies, and science articles for building up science vocabulary. These activities I do not consider momentous.

Since the development of microgroove recordings, the most important development has been stereophonic records which give depth and breadth to music and speech. When one searches the literature to find how these are being used in the schools, he finds little. The talking book appears to have great possibilities. Eventually it may be found on the newsstand as record-grooves become more micro. We shall have to watch such things as the Harcourt-Brace series "Many Voices" to see what happens.

Perhaps greater strides are being made in the use of tapes. The advent of the tape network, guided by the Radio and Television Center in Ann Arbor, shows great promise. One extreme development in the use of tapes has taken place at St. Scholastica Convent in Covington, Louisiana. Here the teachers tape lessons beforehand—including the summer months—in all subjects for the three levels of ability. In two experimental classrooms the teacher's desk has become a console, replete with dials and switches, and many of the student's desks

The Educational Scene

Edited by WILLIAM A. JENKINS

The following remarks were presented by the column editor at one of the group meetings at the convention in Pittsburgh:

We might well begin these remarks on the school's reflection of development in the mass media of communication by pointing to a verbal cartoon. In the cartoon we see a schoolroom with children sitting in front of a TV set. Somewhere in the classroom the teacher is leaning over a boy who is writing at his desk. She says in her best pedagogical tone, "I thought so! Doing your homework while you should be watching TV."

We begin with the thesis that the educational possibilities of the mass media have just been scratched. One of the things which struck me as I was gathering my material for this paper was the fact that there is a shortage of true experimentation and research on the educational possibilities of the media. True, there is a large body of "think pieces," but they will not count for our purposes here.

In looking at the media, the first thing that strikes us is the fact that in our contemporary society, philanthropy has filled the void left by the inaction of citizens' groups and government. The Ford Foundation, to cite one example, has provided us with much of our most fruitful research in the past four or five years. We find also that competition among the media themselves, and among the adherents of a single medium has increased as more attention has been directed to all of the media.

To cite the group of our most immediate concern, many teachers behave about radio and the motion picture and television the way they have behaved in the past about the virtues of Latin, the merits of classical pieces of literature, and the indispensability of the phonetic

approach to reading. We often forget that only a unified attack on and use of the media will produce worthwhile results. Such divisions in what the schools are doing may be healthy, philosophically speaking, but in the meantime the public and our pupils feel that we do not know where we are headed.

Those who have looked at the mass media in great detail raise the question of whether or not freedom of the press is today the personal freedom it was once considered to be. Too often freedom of the press is interpreted as freedom for the operators of the media and the economic majority who own them. Some of these scholars also raise the question of whether or not we are hampering the mass media by thoughtlessly grouping them with the press. I cannot answer the question, but my remarks are based on the idea that the mass media are a part of our pluralistic educational system.

Turning now to radio as the first medium to receive brief attention, we find that radio has not been eclipsed by television. Only the nature of the instrument has changed. There has been a steady increase in radio broadcasting since its inception. Of the one thousand-plus commercial radio stations in the country, the majority of them today are news and music stations. Moreover, 76% of the programs that they and television stations present are produced by advertising agencies. It is clear then that that which is educational on radio is so through chance.

Television has taken away much of radio's entertainment value and it is seeking its new function. I am not certain that being solely

William A. Jenkins



¹University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

are in booths. Each child has a set of earphones and he can dial in the work that he needs at the level suited for him. Incidentally, this was not an expensive experiment. The cost to date has been well under five thousand dollars. The results have not yet been fully analyzed.

The magazine world recently has been rocked by sudden and sometimes inexplicable deaths. In the last decade more than fifty general magazines have gone out of business. Not many new magazines have appeared on the market, *Horizon* being the boldest venture we know of. The best information has it that the increasing need for advertising revenues has been the cause of these deaths. One source has said that magazines feel that they need two hundred million dollars more each year in advertising if they are to survive. On the boards are plans for package advertising which would make the magazines cooperate with each other rather than compete for national advertising. What this will mean for the reader we cannot yet say.

As far as content is concerned, it appears that more magazines are adopting the *Reader's Digest* formula for its foreign editions. This formula says that a theme which was digested in six pages in a domestic issue becomes three times more readable when it is treated in two pages in the foreign issue. On the brighter side, we can point to quality magazines such as *Saturday Review* and the *New Yorker*. Their circulations have continued to increase and their advertising revenues have held up well.

Hollywood was eclipsed in the last decade and has turned out fewer feature films each year. The number now is about four hundred. It would be satisfying if one could say that with fewer films their quality has automatically gone up, but it would also be untrue to generalize in this fashion. Hollywood is still producing films for non-specific audiences—the only specific we can point to, is that young people are the major portion of movie-goers. Hollywood still uses its formula of allowing

us to have our cake and eat it. Films are still produced in which the bad guy suddenly becomes the good guy at the end.

Educational films continue to be used and misused in the schools. Teachers unfortunately still feel that children will get something out of a movie regardless of its relationship to the topic being studied at the moment. Teachers also feel that films are for the young. A survey of seventeen Chicago schools determined that 51% of the films used were used in the kindergarten-primary grades, with 29% in the middle grades, and 20% in the upper grades. I question whether our need for audio-visual materials decreases as we become older.

Our world is a world of words. Unfortunately many teachers feel it is also a world of books. They associate books with culture and education and the other media are overlooked. All is not black in the book world, for in the paperbounds we find books that people do read and like to own. Libraries, for example, have found that the paper books are quite useful for establishing recreational and cultural book shelves in their lounges. They have found too that paperbounds are excellent for extra and reserve copies of books. Paperbounds are lighter and smaller than hardbounds when one has to take a book home. This acceptance does not apply to all librarians. Many of them are still prejudiced towards paper books, but many of them also are having to face the fact that many old books that are needed are available only in the soft covers. Teachers appear less prejudiced. Even such learned concerns as university presses are turning out paperbound books. The University of California Press will print six this year. The price of paperbounds continues to rise, but so does their quality. Mickey Spillane is still on the drugstore counter, but in a less prominent position.

Children's book clubs are on the increase. It should suffice to say that the attendant evils of adult book clubs are found in children's version, but it should not be overlooked that

they are a convenient means of getting children to buy and read books. Children's paperbound book clubs are another innovation.

The colossus in the entertainment field, television, is also being viewed as a young giant of education—perhaps rightly so, perhaps not—but at any rate there are now twenty-four educational television stations in eighteen states serving more than 43 million people. In Seattle, for example, there are television classes in transportation, natural resources, music, art, geography, and history. The ETV station there has blended some of the best elements of education and television into a programming pattern which appears to be quite effective. KING, one of the commercial stations in Seattle, in recent months devoted two hours to previewing an educational television program for Channel 9. Right here in Pittsburgh, WQED has requested a second channel to take care of its many educational activities. I was heartened as I looked through the "Teacher's Guide to Classroom TV" published by KCTS in Seattle and noted some of the programs listed there. For the primary grades there was "Our Neighbors, the Japanese" and "Rosita y Panchita" in Spanish. For the junior high school there was a program called "Washington Taxation." There was even a program for the in-service training of teachers called "How We Teach Science."

Devotees of educational television feel that it has in it solutions to the problems of teacher shortages, classroom shortages, and money shortages. Perhaps in doing so they overlook its lack of color, the difficulty of producing a full blackboard of written material to television size, the rigidity of time schedules, the fast pace that television teachers are wont to set, and the dangers of over-simplification. Students who have been questioned about educational television usually find the instructor either the worst or the best feature, which means the success of education still resides with the teacher. Because it does, the experi-

ment here in Pittsburgh, in which Dr. Harvey White, the physicist, taught high school physics in TV lectures, was outstanding. Fortunately the lectures were put on film and are now being used in cities throughout the country.

In the last two years we have had the appearance of degree programs via television. Chicago has a general college program of three years' duration leading to a degree. In San Francisco, gifted high school students listen to television programs aired by San Francisco State College. In Pittsburgh high school courses are broadcast, leading to diplomas.

One of the more insidious uses to which television is being put—that is, insidious from the pupil's viewpoint—is the monitoring of study halls by television cameras projecting an image on the principal's wall. Even pupils feel that here we have shades of big brother. Interest in ETV has continued to grow. More than thirty states have now appointed commissions to make specific recommendations regarding its use. The Hagerstown, Maryland, study of classroom use of television, involving more than 6,000 pupils, has been watched from all corners of our country, and its noteworthy arrangement of having a teaching team—that is, a television teacher and a follow-up teacher in the classroom—is considered as having merit.

I am not so sure that television is the solution to Malthusian developments in education. I speak now not as a taxpayer. There is more merit, I believe, in breaking down the artificial barriers that exist between educational and non-educational stations. There are many fine educational programs on commercial TV, not enough of course, but I do know that if it is misused, educational television can be as ineffective and as impersonal as a large lecture hall. I do not make the reservations that a history teacher expresses when he says, "Teach art by television, but not history," or when the English teacher says, "Science lends itself better to such treatment." Instead, I merely point to the potential of educational TV and its ability

to use all other instructional materials, singly, or all at one time. Even such an optimistic point of view must include the idea that the teacher is the catalyst in the learning situation.

Perhaps the mass media would do well to adopt the theme of this convention: "Act well your part; there all the honor lies." Acting well their part would mean that they in the future would allow the truth to be tested. I would also mean that advertisers and sponsors who now never directly criticize each other's products would do so. Acting well one's part should also include us as teachers, for we too have sins of omission. We have not been as effective in increasing participation in the mass media by our students as we might. With our pupils and the public with whom we come in contact, we are what Gilbert Seldes calls "defeatist" about the quality of television and our ability to do anything about it. As teachers we should turn out students who are inner-directed and able to cope with their mass media environment. Perhaps too we should admit that bigness is here to stay. Education could do well to make better use of the littleness; FM radio, paper-bound books, esoteric magazines, and non-theatrical and art films are some examples. At the same time we have the obligation to acquaint our students with the bigness that is here and in our own thinking not to hail all technological developments as having immediate educational uses.



The children's book world

A World of Children. This list of stories about children the world over was selected for the pleasure of American children and for the development of their understanding, and compiled by a special committee of the American Library Association Children's Services Division. Single copies may be obtained by sending a self-addressed stamped envelope to the CSD Office, ALA, 50 East Huron Street, Chicago 11.

The closeness created in one family when

they read together is described by Peter Putnam's article "The Family That Reads Together," in the August *Woman's Day* magazine. Mr. Putnam told of books that the whole family enjoyed and included a reading list that other families might use in their reading project.

The Children's Book Council is collecting material for a proposed booklet on "Planning a Program on Children's Books and Reading." The Council would like to hear about any programs that have proved particularly successful and of the specific aids and techniques that were helpful in putting on such a program. Send your write-ups to the Council, Dept. 7, 50 West 53rd Street, New York 19.



Children's Book Club

The December selection is *Tall Tales of America*, edited by Irwin Shapiro. The bonus selection is *America on Parade*, a collection of articles and stories from *American Heritage*, adapted for children by Irwin Shapiro. Both books are of high quality.

Write to Education Center, Columbus 16, Ohio, for information about the *Weekly Reader* Children's Book Club.



The Alphabet Conspiracy

The scientific study of language, which includes not only linguistics but also physiology, psychology, physics, and anthropology, will be presented in "The Alphabet Conspiracy," the newest television program in the prize-winning Bell System Science Series, which will be seen over NBC-TV, Monday evening, January 26.

Dr. Frank C. Baxter is featured in the program. Hans Conried, Cheryl Callaway, and Dolores Starr also have important roles in the story.

"The Alphabet Conspiracy" shows that language is based on speech rather than the written word and shows motion pictures of the vocal cords and the human speech-producing mechanism in action. It shows how the families of languages developed and some of their

similarities and differences, and it discusses the relationships between languages and cultures. One section of the program is devoted to dialect geography, or the location of a person's home by his speech. The final section of the program shows some of the modern machines that have been developed both to study and to utilize language.

"The Alphabet Conspiracy" will be available on 16-mm color film on loan from Bell Telephone Companies for showings in classrooms after January 26.



Useful materials

Growing Up With Books. R. R. Bowker Company, 62 West 36th Street, New York 36. 32 pp. This is the sixth edition of the popular booklist that lists and annotates 250 of the "best of the best," arranged by age and subject.

Growing Up With Science Books. R. R. Bowker Company, 62 West 45th Street, New York 36. 36 pp. Two hundred of the best science books for children are given in this booklist. The books were chosen from among those recommended in Library Journal reviews.

Literature for Children. World Book Encyclopedia, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago. Reprinted from the 1956 World Book Encyclopedia, this leaflet give a brief overview of the children's book world—history, present state, and an excellent bibliography of children's books. Single copy free to teachers and librarians.

Library. World Book Encyclopedia, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago 54. Another reprint from the World Book Encyclopedia, the pamphlet describes types of libraries, their functions, and general library use. Single copy free to teachers and librarians.

The Mill Creek Story. World Book Encyclopedia, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago 54. \$50. The story of how one community evaluated using this encyclopedia in its schools, and how the schools used sets in the classroom.

Primary Grade Activities. World Book Encyclopedia, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago 54. \$1. Instructional aids, units and topics which can be used by teachers who have the World Book, based on the experiences of teachers in five school systems. Very thorough references given.

The February 1958 issue of the *ALA Bulletin* is devoted to the theme, "The School Library and the Gifted Child." Timely ideas and experiences in many subject areas and levels are included in the articles.



Reading Institute

The theme of the Sixteenth Annual Reading Institute at Temple University to be held January 26-30, will be "Instructional Approaches in Reading." Major emphasis will be placed upon similarities and differences in various instructional approaches to reading in terms of basic purposes, principles, methods, and materials. Activities will include addresses by persons prominent in various reading areas, panels, demonstration and case-study presentations for classroom teachers at levels through college. Special reading teachers, administrators and supervisors, group testing program directors, reading consultants, college and adult program personnel, and all others interested are invited to write to Bruce W. Brigham, Coordinator of Institute Services, The Reading Clinic, Temple University, Philadelphia 22, for complete information.



Library Week

The 1959 National Library Week will be celebrated April 12-18. The theme for 1959 will be the same as before—"A better read, better informed America." A new handbook for use by local committees has been prepared, and such materials as streamers, posters, and recordings may be purchased separately or in quantities. Complete information may be obtained from the American Library Association, 50 East Huron, Chicago, Ill.

ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

Joint Meeting: International Reading Association with the American Association of School Administrators

ATLANTIC CITY

Helen M. Robinson, Chairman

MONDAY, FEBRUARY 16

2:30 - 4:30

Theme: Reading for Today's Curriculum

"Types of Reading Needed Today," Dr. Kenneth Lund, Superintendent of Schools, Oak Park-River Forest High School, Oak Park, Illinois

"Teaching Creative Reading," Dr. Mary C. Austin, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 17

2:30 - 4:30

"How Should the Reading Program of the Early Grades Affect Love of Literature," Dr. William S. Gray, University of Chicago

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 18

2:30 - 4:30

Panel Discussion:

Joint Meeting: International Reading Association with the American Educational Research Association

ATLANTIC CITY

TUESDAY, FEBRUARY 17

10:00

Dr. Arthur Traxler, Chairman

"Research in Reading and the Other Language Arts"

"A Study of the Influence of Reading Ability on the Validity of Group Intelligence Tests"

Theodora Clymer, Associate Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

"Studies of the Status of Reading Interests and Habits of High School and College Students"

William S. Gray, Professor of Education Emeritus, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.

"The Medical Treatment of Reading Disorders. Mental Hospital Patients"

Donald E. P. Smith, Chief, Division of Reading Improvement Services, Bureau of Psychological Services, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

"Using 'Reading Reinforced by Hearing' as a Technique for Identifying Pupils with Special Disabilities in Reading"

Walter N. Durost, Director of Educational Services, Pinellas County, Florida

"Pupil Team Approaches to Effective Learning in Reading and the Language Arts"

Donald D. Durrell, Professor of Education, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

"Use of the Modern Language Aptitude Test in Secondary Schools"

John B. Carroll, Professor of Education, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

"A Longitudinal Study of Spelling Achievement"

Thomas D. Horn, Associate Professor, Curriculum and Instruction, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

"An Analysis of the Accuracy of Newspaper Reporting (The Newspaper as an Educational Resource)"

Raymond A. Weiss, Associate Professor of Education, School of Education, New York University, New York, N. Y.

Associated Meeting: International Reading Association with The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

CINCINNATI, OHIO
NETHERLAND HILTON HOTEL

SUNDAY, MARCH 1
2:00

Chairman: Dr. Margaret Wasson, Director of Instruction, Highland Park Public Schools, Dallas, Texas

"Marks of a Good Reading Program" Dr. Don Parker, Consultant, Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

"The Publisher's Role in Producing Books for a Good Reading Program", Dr. Marion Anderson, Elementary School Editor, Ginn and Company, Boston, Mass.

Interrogator: Dr. Herman Benthul, Co-ordinator of Elementary Education, Dallas Public School, Dallas Texas

Joint Session: International Reading Association with National Science Teachers Association

ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
THURSDAY, APRIL 2
1:30

Chairman: Dr. E. Elona Sochor, Director, The Reading Clinic, Temple University

"Basic Skills for Reading Science Materials," Dr. George W. Bond, Director, The Reading Center, State Teachers College, New Paltz, New York

"Applying Reading Skills to Scientific Materials," Dr. Glenn O. Blough, Associate Professor of Education, University of Maryland.

Programs for
CARNIVAL OF BOOKS
Children's Book and Author Series
January-February-March, 1959

(Note: Dates given are for WMAQ broadcasts on Sundays, 7:45-8:00 AM. Check your local station in your area for day and time of broadcast.)

JANUARY

January 4

A PARENT'S GUIDE TO
CHILDREN'S READING
by Nancy Larrick of New York
Published by Doubleday & Co.

January 11

THE TROUBLE WITH FRANCIS
by Berman Lord of New York
Published by Henry Z. Walck, Inc.

January 18

GIFT FROM THE MIKADO
by Elizabeth P. Fleming, Oak
Park, Ill. Published by
Westminster Press.

January 25

GALILEO AND THE MAGIC NUMBERS
by Sidney Rosen of Urbana,
Ill. Published by Little, Brown & Co.

FEBRUARY

February 1

THE SPETTECAKE HOLIDAY
by Edith Unnerstad, Stockholm, Sweden
Guest: Inger Boye, translator
Published by Macmillan

February 8

IT HAPPENED ON A HOLIDAY
by Lavinia R. Davis, Brookfield Center,
Conn.
Published by Doubleday & Co.

February 15

TREASURE OF GREEN KNOWE
by L. M. Boston of Hunts, England,
Published by Harcourt, Brace

February 22

CHAMPION DOG PRINCE TOM
by Jean Fritz of Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
and Tom Clute of Adrian, Mich.
THE CABIN FACED WEST
by Jean Fritz of Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Published by Coward-McCann, Inc.

MARCH

March 1

PANCHO, A DOG OF THE PLAINS
by Bruce Grant of Evanston, Ill.
Published by World Pub. Company

AMERICAN INDIANS

by Bruce Grant of Evanston, Ill.
Published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

March 8

DE LESSEPS, BUILDER OF SUEZ
by Laura Long of Columbus, Indiana
Published by Longmans, Green & Co.

March 15

WHEN THE DIKES BROKE
by Alta Seymour of Oak Park, Ill.
Published by Follett Pub. Co.

March 22

THE WITCH OF BLACKBIRD POND
by Elizabeth Spere of Wethersfield, Conn.
Published by Houghton Mifflin

March 29

PAGES, PICTURES, AND PRINT
by Joanna Foster of New York
Published by Harcourt, Brace



BOOKS FOR CHILDREN

Mabel F. Altstetter

Edited by MABEL F. ALTSTETTER

Mabel F. Altstetter, Chairman, Department of English, School of Education, Miami University (Ohio); lecturer and writer in the field of CHILDREN'S BOOKS AND READING; Editor, Adventuring with Books, 1956.

MARGARET MARY CLARK reviews books of science, social studies, and biography. Miss Clark is head of the Lewis Carroll Room, Cleveland Public Library, and a member of the committee for ADVENTURING WITH BOOKS (National Council of Teachers of English, 1956).

Easy Reading Books

The Wonderful Egg. Written and illustrated by Dahlov Ipcar. Doubleday, 1958. \$2.50. (3-7).

An egg lay in a nest of moss one hundred million years ago. What kind of an egg was it? Dahlov Ipcar explores all the possibilities as she ranges through the list of dinosaurs, giving the characteristics of each. But it was not a dinosaur egg, it was something more wonderful and something on earth for the first time.

The charm of the book lies in the pictures. Something of the steaming green and blue jungle has been caught with the giant tree ferns and huge plants. On each page is a different kind of a dinosaur clearly pictured. A table of comparative sizes and a page of pronunciation of the names is found at the end of the book.

A

Chanticleer and the Fox. Adapted from the Canterbury Tales and illustrated by Barbara Cooney. Crowell, 1958. \$3.00. (5-8).

One of the most beautiful picture books of the year. Children will hardly need the text to understand the fable of the proud cock and the wily fox. Mrs. Cooney studied medieval manuscripts in preparation for her illustrations

and kept a rooster in a pen so that she could catch him in life-like poses. The illustrations glow with vigor, and the use of color is superb. The print and paper make good companions for the pictures.

A

Otto at Sea. Story and pictures by William Pene du Bois. Viking, 1958. \$2.50. (6-9).

Otto is so big that he can look into a lighthouse at the top. His size was a definite advantage when he was sent on a good will voyage from France to America and a violent storm arose. Only Otto could save the ship as he shifted his huge bulk from side to side.

There is a delightful captain and other assorted human beings but Otto is the center of the story. William Pene du Bois is a master of tongue-in-cheek humor as his pictures say to the child, "Of course there couldn't be a dog as big as Otto but don't you wish there were!"

A



Margaret Mary Clark

Skipping Island. Written and illustrated by Emma L. Brock. Knopf, 1958. \$2.95. (5-8).

Children will like the story of an island that blew about in Blue Kettle Lake wherever the wind was pleased to place it. Mrs. Fiddlefinger and her six ducks enjoyed the excitement and surprise of never quite knowing just where they would be from one day to the next. The calm



with which Mrs. Fiddlefinger made pancakes or baked biscuits while moving in her shack with the whims of the wind is comforting. The illustrations are in color and black and white.

A

The Magic Meadow. Written and illustrated by Ingri and Edgar Perin D'Aulaire. Doubleday, 1958. \$3.00. (6-10).



The Magic Meadow

In this book, the D'Aulaires' have woven together the story of William Tell and several Swiss folk tales as back-ground for a modern Swiss boy's experiences high in the Alps. The language differences in the three parts of Switzerland are made clear and the customs and occupations of the sturdy people are portrayed both in text and pictures.

But most of all, this is Peterli's story and it is his belief in the magic of a beautiful meadow on his grandfather's farm that solves the problem of a livelihood for the feeble old man and the boy.

As always, the beautiful, bold illustrations of the D'Aulaires make this book a worthy addition to their other books which children have loved.

A

Folklore

Castles and Dragons. Compiled by the Child Study Association of America. Illustrated by William Pene du Bois. Crowell, 1958. \$3.50. (8-11).



Eighteen fairy stories have been written or adapted by contemporary authors whose talents make this book a literary delight. The purpose of the book is that of providing stories that children can read for themselves while not sacrificing the wonder and magic of beautiful heroines, daring heroes, and wicked villains. Each story has its own truth as old as the race.

Du Bois' illustrations in black and white and the beautiful paper and print combine to

make this a book which children will turn to again and again.

A

Fiction

The Cave. Elizabeth Coatsworth. Illustrated by Allan Houser. Viking, 1958. \$2.50. (8-12).

This is a warm, gentle book with a poetic

*The Cave*

and legend-like quality. Jim Boy-Who-Loves-Sheep is a Navajo who accompanies as helper to a sheepherder, Fernado, whose surly ways make a difficult problem for Jim.

The herd is started for summer pasture high in the hills when a late storm overtakes them and death for the sheep seems certain. Jim, who knows that country, remembers a nearby cave where shelter could be provided but it is a fearful place, haunted by the spirits of his ancestors. His pity for the sheep overcame his fear and the herd is saved. Fernado's gratitude wipes away his hostility and the two come to understand each other.

A

Christy at Skippingbills. By Mabel Leigh Hunt.

Illustrated by Velma Ilesley. Lippincott, 1958. \$3.00. (9-11).

Children who read *Stars for Christy* will

*Christy at Skippingbills*

welcome another book about the little Italian girl, and new readers will take her to their hearts.

The searching of the Romano family to find a home town ends at Skippingbills where the father opens a shoe repair shop, mama bakes pizza for a restaurant and the two girls go to school.

This is a heartwarming story of a town of good neighbors and their understanding acceptance of a shy, quiet family whose ways were strange. The story revolves around Christy, the sensitive little girl whose appreciation of all the good things that came to her is touching and humorous.

A

Wilderness Adventure. By Fredrika Shumway Smith. Illustrated by Jack Merryweather. Rand, 1958. (8-12).

*Wilderness Adventure*

Life at Fort Dearborn, later to become Chicago, is seen through the eyes of Nat Jenkins and his friend, Swift Arrow, the son of a friendly Potawatomi Indian Chief.

All the ingredients of a good Indian tale are here—the kidnapping of Nat's young sister by Fox Indians, the pursuit, and the escape. Hunting, fishing, and canoeing are shared by the two boys.

Good adventure and authentic history.

A

Science

I Like Caterpillars. By Gladys Conklin. Illustrated by Barbara Latham, Holiday House, 1958. \$2.75. (5-8).

This is a very childlike and appealing nature picture book about the appearance and habits of caterpillars as a young child might observe and enjoy them. Fourteen of the more familiar moth and butterfly caterpillars are shown in bright color-splashed pictures and are briefly

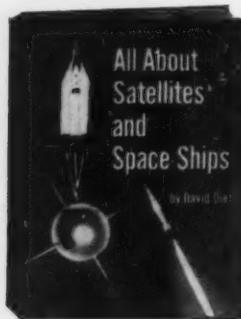


described. The final book page identifies them by name. The author was inspired to write the book in response to a six-year-old's earnest request for a "book on just caterpillars!"

C

All About Space Ships and Satellites. By David Dietz. Illustrated by George Wilde. Random House, 1958. \$1.95. (10 and up).

The age of space travel has only begun and pioneers are "preparing for the supreme adventure in exploration." Dr. Dietz gives an im-



pressive account of what has already been achieved and the obstacles still to be overcome as he discusses rockets, satellites, space ships,

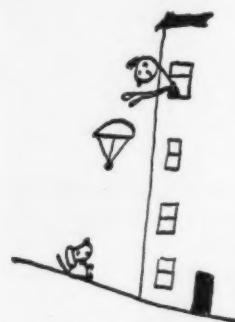
and space stations and the solar system in relation to such projected explorations. This is a lucid and absorbing presentation of a complex subject, illustrated with good photographs and diagrams and well indexed. C

Exploring the Planets. By Roy A. Gallant. Illustrated by John Polgreen. Garden City, 1958. \$2.95. (10-14).

From primitive man's first need to study the heavens for guidance in agriculture and navigation, it has become through the ages an exacting and challenging science but one with many questions still unanswered. Roy Gallant discusses many of the outstanding theories on how the planets were born and then describes the separate planets. Impressive full-page pictures in black-and-white and color and many diagrams add greatly to the interest of this newest title in the "Exploring Series." Emphasis on the vast field that is still unknown in the science of astronomy adds a stimulating note to this thoughtfully presented book.

C

Science Can Be Fun. By Munro Leaf. Illustrated by the author. Lippincott, 1958. \$2.75. (6-9).



Science Can Be Fun

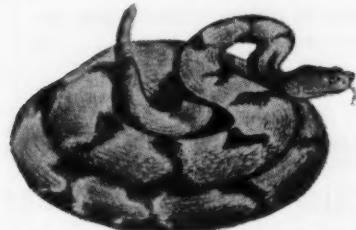
Using his familiar cartoonlike drawings and simple large print text, Munro Leaf has managed to highlight a surprising amount of scientific information. Using a conversational approach, he describes the important facts about animal and plant life, liquids and solids, air

and wind, gravity and electricity, and the why of day and night and the seasons. There are a few simple, familiar experiments. Mr. Leaf's latest book will help meet the demand for science books at the younger children's level.

C

Buzztail: The Story of a Rattlesnake. By Robert McClung. Illustrated by the author. Morrow, 1958. \$2.50. (8-12).

Robert McClung has a special talent for giving his animals individuality even though the accounts of their lives are completely scientific. Through the story of Buzztail, a timber rattlesnake, a very complete picture is given of the life and habits of this particular breed, and emergency and antivenin treatment if the snake should strike. The author-artist's fine



Buzztail: The Story of a Rattlesnake

illustrations show the rattlesnake in its natural habitat, the shedding of the skin, growth of the rattle, and how venom is forced through the fangs, a detail which holds great fascination for children interested in snakes! C

Orbit: A Picture Story of Force and Motion By Hy Ruchlis. Illustrated by Alice Hirsh Harper. 1958. \$2.75. (10-16).

In a remarkably clear and understandable presentation, Newton's laws and their applications are interpreted for today's readers. The three laws dealing with Motion: inertia, acceleration and momentum, action and reaction, together with the Law of Gravitation, are illustrated through very timely examples and photographs and diagrams. The basic scientific principles are applied to feats of motion from

walking to space flight. Provocative questions are raised throughout the book, and the answers given in a final section. This is a valuable contribution in its field. C

Ancient Elephants. By William E. Scheele. Illustrated by the author. World, 1958. \$2.50. (9-13).



Ancient Elephants

In his first book written for younger readers, the Director of Cleveland Museum of Natural History offers fascinating information about elephants and their ancestors who have inhabited the earth for 70 million years and are of at least 600 types. Through fossil study, facts about major families, their food habits, structure, migrations, and reasons for their disappearance, are described. Liberally illustrated with over fifty drawings, *Ancient Elephants* will undoubtedly be welcomed by the large audience of prehistoric animal enthusiasts.

C

Andy's Wonderful Telescope. By G. Warren Schloot. Illustrated with photographs. Scribner, 1958. \$2.75. (8-12).

Mr. Schloot's ability to make ideas concrete for younger readers in both text and photographs carries into this newest title which combines introductory astronomy and the use of the telescope. Using simple materials and many effective diagrams, he gives children a feeling for proportion and distance in the universe as well as "the relationship of our earth to our sun

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and neighboring planets." The discovery that led to the building of the first telescope, the basic principles involved, and modern developments are described in the second section of the book. Their presentation should serve as an incentive to young amateurs to study and observe the wonders of the heavens for themselves.

C

Pets from the Pond. Written and illustrated by Margaret Waring Buck. Abingdon, 1958. \$3.00. (8-13).

"What should a pet frog eat? What kind of fish will lay eggs in an aquarium? What water insects will make good aquarium pets?" From types of aquariums to the wide variety of pets which may be kept is discussed in very helpful detail, and includes where to find them, and their care and feeding. Snails and clams, fishes, tadpoles and frogs, salamanders, turtles,

crayfishes, and water insects offer an infinite variety from which to choose a pet or pets. The how, when, and what to feed are quite explicit, and so is the actual care of the



Pets from the Pond

aquarium and important water plants to place in it. The book is similar in format to the author's earlier books, and is prolifically illustrated with clear line drawings in black-and-white. This is a valuable addition either in the classroom or for the children's own use.

C

NATIONWIDE SPELLING CONTEST

- STIMULATE your English sessions by entering your students in the Annual Nationwide Spelling Examination to be administered in April. Awards will be granted to those students achieving a percentile ranking of 80 or higher. The examination is being offered on grade levels 4-12.

Also being offered this year are separate competitive examinations measuring achievement in the following areas:

- Grammar and Punctuation
- Composition Skills
- Vocabulary Development

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- ENRICH your teaching with motivating materials. Most of these materials are designed to make the study of grammar more appealing to the students. Also included are activity units (library, dictionary, short story, newspaper, etc.) and ideas for themes and speeches. Most of these materials are useful on all levels.

Send for FREE Copy of last year's examination and listing of available materials to Donald R. Honz, Director, Educational Stimuli, 1124 Belknap Street, Apt. B-2, Superior, Wisconsin.

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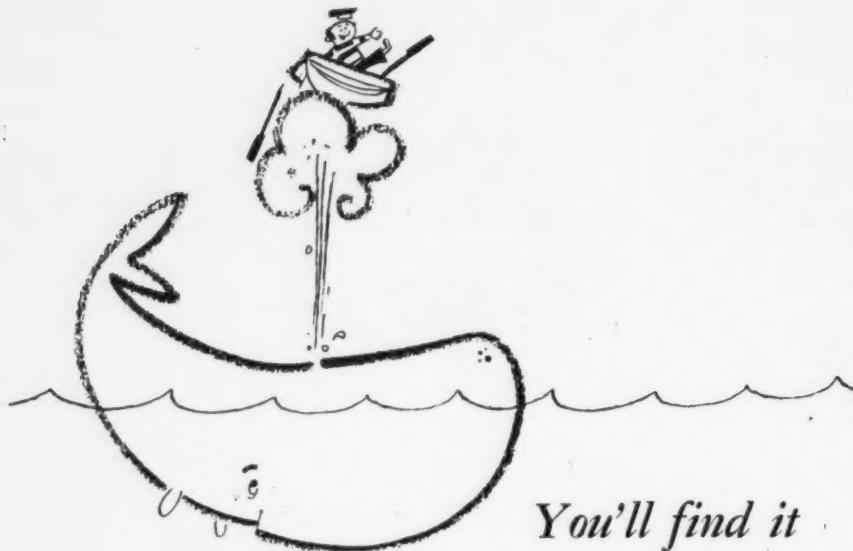
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